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# THE ĀGAMASASTRA OF GAUDAPĀDA

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EDITED, TRANSLATED AND ANNOTATED

BY

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#### TO

THE REVERED MEMORY

OF

#### GURUDEVA

#### RABINDRANATH TAGORE

bhedo yasya na vastuto'sti bhuvane prācī pratīcīti vā mitratvam prakaṭikṛtam ca satatam yenātmanaḥ karmaṇā | viśvam yasya padam prasiddham aniśam satye ca yasya sthitir bhūyāt tasya jayo raver anudinam tenāstu tṛptam jagat ||

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#### **PREFACE**

#### Introductory

It was in July, 1919, that, in order to prepare some lectures for my pupils in the Visvabharati, Santiniketan, I had to read the Upanisads anew; and in doing so when I, now with a little acquaintance with Buddhism, began to study the Agamasastra of Gaudapada. popularly known as the Gaudapādakārikā on the Mandakya Upanisad. I was struck with its contents which were known to me before this quite in a different light. I found there something new. In 1922, in the Second All-India Oriental Conference held in this University, which was presided over by my esteemed friend, Prof. Sylvain Lévi, then the first Visiting Professor of the Visyabharati, I read a paper on the subject, in which I said that a book under the title of The Agamaśāstra of Gaudapāda, embodying the result of my studies in it, would shortly be ready for the press. But, unfortunately, it could not be done earlier than now. However, I wrote some stray articles in English and Bengali on the subject. While they arrested the attention of certain scholars trained on modern lines. they gave rise to adverse criticism mainly from the orthodox section of my friends strictly following the indigenous interpretation of the Upanisad, given by Sankara, the commentator of the present work.

Not being satisfied with the interpretation offered by Sankara and his followers. or some other teachers I have attempted in the following pages to present to the readers my own interpretation of the work as I have understood. But in no way do I claim that my interpretation is the interpretation, i.e., the interpretation intended by Gaudapāda himself. Gaudapāda has not appeared to me and said that mine is the true interpretation, nor has God told me anything to the effect, nor am I an omniscient being. It is quite natural and well-known to all that the same thing sometimes appears differently to different persons owing to a variety of circumstances. It would be sheer foolishness on my part, I am perfectly conscious, if I pretend to claim by writing the following pages any superiority to the commentator, whether he is or is not identical with the great author of the commentary on the Brahmasūtras, who is known by the same name, Śańkara. I have simply put down my views here and I request my readers only to see if the text can be explained also in the way I have followed here.

I may say here in the following words of Yasomitra (AKV<sup>1</sup>, p. 2):

yuktā ced grāhyeyam na ced ato 'nyathā vidhātavyā | na hi viṣame'rthe skhalitum na sambhaven mādṛśām buddhiḥ ||

On points related to Buddhism, which are frequently raised in the course of my explanation, I have in many cases quoted in support of my views more passages than one, though a single passage could serve the

purpose, having meant them specially for those of my readers who are not adequately acquainted with Buddhist thoughts or have no easy access to Buddhist works.

In the present volume I have given a new edition of the text of the Agamaśāstra based on a number of MSS and different editions as described below, followed by an English translation. After this comes my annotation.

At the end there are Appendixes including the text and English translation of the Māṇḍūkya Upaniṣad, Variants of the MSS used for the edition of the text of the Agamaśāstra, and different Indexes as the Contents will show.

#### Manuscripis -

Let us give here a description of the MSS. referred to above:

- 1. A<sup>1</sup>. Advar Library. No. IX. G. 52. It is in folios 20-28 of the codex. Written in Devanāgarī on paper in black ink, punctuated with red marks, and bounded on either side by double lines. Size 12.3" × 4.8". Eleven lines on each page. No date, nor the name of the scribe. In this MS we have the MāU and the GK.
- 2. A<sup>2</sup>. Advar Library. No. IX. F. 99. Fols. 30-39 of this codex contain the MāU and GK. Size 10"×6". Number of lines on each page 12 or 13. Written neatly in Devanāgarī on paper, punctuated and bounded on each side by a double line. No date, nor the name of the scribe.

- 3. A<sup>3</sup>. Adyar Library. No. IX. F. 130. Fols. 38-53 of this codex, too, contain MāU together with the GK. Written in modern Devanāgarī on paper, bounded on each side by a triple line. Size 10.1"×5". There are 8 or 9 lines on each page. No date, nor the name of the scribe.
- 4. A<sup>4</sup>. Adyar Library. No. IX. B. 181. It is written on hand-made paper in Sāradā script. There are 30 folios. Size 9" × 6". Each page has 18-25 lines. The borders of the MS are completely worn out, and last 12 folios are torn and destroyed in the middle. It is written in black ink, but the numbers of the folios are given in English figures in red one. No date is to be found, but from the worn out condition of the codex it seems to be not less than two hundred years old. The name of the scribe is also not given.

This codex contains different Upanisads, 19 in all, the Vedāntasāra (Śaivadarśana), and the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, 111. 10. 9-11. Here we have also the MāU and only the first prakaraṇa of GK.

5. B¹. Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona. No. 272 of 1879-80. It is written on paper in Devanāgarī. Size 10.5"×4.7". Originally it had 67 fols., but the first 15 fols are missing, and so we have now only 52 fols. Each page contains 10 to 14 lines. It is dated as 1765 (bāṇa-aṅga-aśva-avanī), but it is not known whether it is Saṃvat or Saka era.

This MS contains only the last three Books of the GK beginning with the first kārikā of Book II.

6. B<sup>2</sup>. Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona. No. 778 of 1891-96. It is written on paper in Devanāgarī. Fols. 45. Size 9" × 5". Like the preceding one it, too, has only the last three Books of GK together with Sankara's commentary.

The kārikās, specially those in the last Book are numbered very carelessly; thus the last kārikā of the last Book is numbered as 93 instead of 100. No date, nor the name of the scribe.

- 7. D¹. Dayananda Anglo-Vedic College, Lahore. No. nil. Written neatly in Devanāgarī on paper. Size  $11.4'' \times 6''$ . There is no date, nor the name of the scribe. It contains MāU and the GK together with the commentary of Sankara on both of them. Originally there were 42 fols., but fols. 18, 19, 30-35 containing kārikās 10-53 of the fourth prakarana are missing. In three or four cases some letters are lost, the paper being torn or damaged. In this MS b is written for both b and v.
- 8. D<sup>2</sup>. Dayananda Anglo-Vedic College, Lahore. No. nil. Written neatly on paper measuring 11.2"×5.6" and bounded on both sides by thick lines. There are 69 fols. It contains the MāU and the GK with \$ankara's commentary on both of them. No date, nor the name of the scribe.
- 9. D³. Dayananda Anglo-Vedic College, Lahore. No. nil. Fols. 2-35. Size 12.2" × 5.5". Written neatly on paper in Devanāgarī. It contains the first 7 passages of the MāU, first 14 kārikās of the first prakaraṇa of the GK and parts of Śańkara's commentary with Ānandagiri's ṭīkā.

- 10. IO. India office. No. 2783. In this codex there are three MSS, viz., (1) Prapañcasāravivaraṇa, (2) Laghukaumudī, and (3) MāU together with the GK only up to the Book I. The ślokas of maṅgalācaraṇa of Śaṅkara's commentary are given with GK. The script is Devanāgarī. No date, but it seems to be old. Almost correct.
- 11. K<sup>1</sup>. Govt. Sanskrit College, Kāśī (Benares). No. 290 (Cover No. 9). Written in Bengali character on paper. Size 9.2" × 4.2". Fols. 24. Lines in each page 7. There is no date, yet it appears to be very modern. Writer's name is not given. There are mistakes and omissions. The MS contains both MāU and GK.
- 12. K<sup>2</sup>. Govt. Sanskrit College, Kāśī (Benares). No. 163. This is a part of a bigger MS of which we have only 24 fols. (29-52). Size 12"×5". Each page has 9 lines. There is no date, nor the name of the scribe. This MS contains only the third Book of the GK with Śańkara's commentary. It is not quite correct. Some of the kārikās are here misplaced.
- 13. K<sup>8</sup>. Govt. Sanskrit College, Kāśī (Benares). No. 13 (Cover No. 4). Size 14.3"×6.2". Script Devanāgarī. Fols. 10. Average number of lines in each page 13. Saṃvat 1907. Written at Vṛndāvana. The scribe is not mentioned.

It contains the original text of the MāU together with the commentary called Māṇḍūkyopaniṣadarthaprakāśa. Though the name of its author is not mentioned here he is no other than Kūranārāyaṇa, a follower of

the Rāmān u ja school. This commentary is published in the Anandasham Series, No. 62.

- 14. K<sup>8</sup>. Govt. Sanskrit College, Kāśī (Benares). No. 304 (Cover No. 9). It is the first 12 fols. of a bigger codex. Size 10.3" × 5.4". Number of lines in each page 8. Written on paper in Bengali script. It extends up to the kārikā 12 of Book I together with Śankara s commentary. No date. Appearance modern. No name of the scribe.
- No. 948. Script Devanāgarī. Fols. 9. Size 12"×6". Lines on each page 13-18. Date about 1850 V.S., as says one Bhojlal, a manuscript dealer and bookseller from whom it seems to have been secured.

It contains MaU up to prabhavapyayau hi bhūtanam. atraite śloka bhavanti, and the GK of Book I.

- 16. PU<sup>2</sup>. The Panjab University Library, Lahore. No. 746. Script Devanāgarī. Fols. 142. Size 14"×7". Number of lines on each page varies from 13 to 18. No date, but said to be of about 1850 V.S. Obtained at Amritsar, and said to be of Kashmir recension. It contains the MāU and the GK together with the commentary of Sankara followed by Ānandagiri's tīkā:
- 17. Vs. Visvabharati. No. 1317. It is written in Grantha character on palm-leaf. Fols. 58. Size 15.7" × 1.3". Lines 7-8 on each page. It contains the following works: (1) Srimad Bhagavadgitā (fols. 1-29); (2) Isopanisad (fols. 30°), (3) Kenopanisad (fols. 30°-32°), (4) Kathopanisad (fols. 32°-37°), (5) Prasnopanisad

- (fols. 37°-41°), (6) Mundakopanişad (fols. 41°-44°), (7) Māṇḍūkyopaniṣad with GK (fols. 44°-52°), and (8) Taittirīyopaniṣad (fols. 52°-58). This MS seems to be about 150 years old, but there is no date nor the name of the scribe.
- 18. V<sup>n</sup>. Visvabharati. No. 1632. Written on palm-leaf in Devanāgarī. Fols. 13. Size 11.5"×4". Lines on each page 7-8. The scribe was one Vāsudeva Bhide, the son of one Nārāyaṇa. It was written at Śrīpañcavaṭī in the presence of (god) Śrīrāma on the 7th day of the black fortnight of the month of Caitra in the Śaka era 1733 (Prajāpati saṃvatsara)=1811 A.D. It contains the MāU with the GK beginning with the benedictory Vedic ślokas, bhadraṃ karṇebhiḥ° (RV, I. 89. 8), and svasti na indra° (RV, I. 89. 6) to which are added the first two ślokas, viz., prajāānāṃśu° and yo viśvātmā° of Śaṅkara with which he is said to have begun his commentary on the MāU.

As regards the relationship of the MSS described above it may briefly be observed that A<sup>1</sup> and A<sup>2</sup> are from the same family and have close connexion with A<sup>8</sup>, IO, PU<sup>1</sup> and PU<sup>2</sup>. B<sup>1</sup> and B<sup>2</sup> are closely related and so are D<sup>1</sup> and D<sup>2</sup>. V<sup>5</sup> and V<sup>n</sup> agree in many cases with A<sup>1</sup>, A<sup>2</sup>, D<sup>1</sup> and D<sup>2</sup>.

Among the MSS mentioned above A<sup>1</sup> and A<sup>2</sup> are the worst giving very wrong readings. Yet, at least in one case (IV. 56°) A<sup>1</sup> with IO gives the right reading. See Introduction, § 5. The Readings of the Text.

In addition to the MSS described above the readings collected from the thirteen MSS, utilized for the preparation of the second edition of the MāU and GK together with Śańkara's commentary and Ānandashram Series, No. 10, have also been consulted. The MSS collected for that edition are mentioned here, where necessary, according to the abbreviations used there, viz., K, Kh, G, Gh, etc. Besides, such editions as of Maheśacandarana Pāla, Calcutta, 1806 Sakaera; of MM. Durgācaraṇa Sāṅkhya-Vedānta-tīrtha, Calcutta, 1331 Bengali era; and of Gita Press, Gorakhpur, 1993 V.S., have been consulted.

The most important readings are discussed in their respective places in the main work, while variants will be found in the Appendix II, pp. 229 ff. See Introduction, § 4.

#### Acknowledgment

I am deeply indebted to the authorities of the following Institutions, who have kindly given me on loan the MSS described above: Adyar Library, Madras; Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona; Dayananda Anglo-Vedic College, Lahore; Government Sanskrit College, Benares; India Office, London; Panjab University Library, Lahore; and Visvabharati Library, Santiniketan.

I am thankful to my pupils Srī P. An ujan Achan, Government Archæologist, the State

Museum, Trichur; Śrī A. Chalamayya, Superintendent, the Orphanage, Pithapuram: Śrī Anukul Chandra Banerjee, M.A., B.L., Assistant Lecturer in Pali, and Śrī Ajit Ranjan Bhattacharyya, M.A., Ex-Puranchand Nahar Fellow, both of the University of Calcutta; the first two kindly collated for me some of the MSS used in the present edition of the book, and the last two helped me in preparing two of the Indexes appended hereto. I am thankful also to Śrī Dinabandhu Ganguli, B.A., the able Superintendent, Calcutta University Press, for the kind care he has taken in carrying the book through the press, and to Sri Ramakrishna Chakravarti, M.A., of the same press for his very careful assistance in reading the proofs.

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Brahmavihāra, CALCUTTA. May, 1943.

VIDHUSHEKHARA BHATTACHARYA.

### **ABBREVIATIONS**

Ā	Ānandagiri.
AAA	Abhisamayālankārāloka (Prajñāpāramitās,
	· Vol. I), Gaekwad's Oriental Series, No.
	LXVII.
AAS	Abhidhammatthasaṃgaha with Vibhāvanī
-	tīkā, ed. Fernando and Silva,
	Colombo, 1898.
AK	L'Abhidharmakośa de Vasubandhu
	traduit et ennoté per Louis de la
	Vallée Poussin, Paris, 1923-31.
AKB	Abhidharmakośabhāṣya (Tibetan Text), BB.
$AKV^{1}$	Abhidharmakośavyākhyā of Yaśomitra,
	Fasc. I-II, BB.
$AKV^2$	Abhidharmakośavyākhyā of Yaśomitra,
	ed. U. Wogihara, Tokio, 1932-1936.
AmK	Amarakośa.
AN .	Anguttara Nikāya, PTS.
	Acta Orientalia.
ÀP.	Abhidhānappadīpikā, Colomoo, 1900.
ĀŚ	Agamasastra of Gaudapada.
AS	Atthasalini, PTS.
ĀS	Ācārānga Sūtra, PTS.
ASP	Astasāhasrikā Prajnāpāramitā, BI.
ASU	Astottarasatopanisad, ed. W. Laxman
-	Shastri Pansikar, Nirnaya-
	sagar, 1917.

AU Ätmopanisad.

AV Atharvaveda.

BA Bodhicaryāvatāra, Bl.

BAP Bodhicaryāvatārapañjikā, BI.

BB Bibliotheca Buddhica.

Bbh Bodhisattvabhūmi, ed. U. Wogihara, Tokio, 1930. See BSB.

BBU Brahmabindu Upanisad.

BBV Bṛhadāraṇyakabhāṣyavārttika, Anandashram, 1892-94.

BCK Buddhacarita Kāvya, ed. Johnston, 1936.

BG Bhagavadgītā.

BI Bibliotheca Indica.

BJS Brahmajāla Sutta in DN, PTO.

BP Bhāgavata Purāņa.

BS Brahmasūtras of Bādarāyaņa.

BSB Bodhisattvabhūmi, ed. U. Wogihara, Tokio, 1930. See Bbh.

BU Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.

ChU Chāndogya Upaniṣad.

CN Chullaniddesa, PTS.

CŚ Catuhśataka, Sanskrit and Tibetan Texts, ed. Vidhushekhara Bhattacharya, Visvabharati, Part II, 1931.

CS' Catuhsatikā, ed. Haraprasad Shastri in the Memories of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. III, No. 8, pp. 449-514.

CVP Cittaviśuddhiprakarana, ed. Prabhubhai Patel, Visvabharati (not yet published). See JASB, 1898.

- DA Divyāvadāna, ed. Cowell and Nail, Cambridge, 1886.
- DäV Der älter Vedānta von Max Walleser, Heidelberg, 1911.
- DB Daśabhūmikasūtra, ed. Rahder, Paris, 1926.
- D' The edition of the MāU by Durgācaraņa. Sānkhya-Vedānta-tīrtha, Calcutta, 1331, Bengali Era.
  - DN Dīgha Nikāya, PTS.
- DP Dhammapada.
- DPA Dhammapada Atthakathā, PTS.
- DPP Doctrine of Prajñāpāramita, by E. Obermiller, Acta Orientalia, Vol. IX.
- DS Dharmasamgraha, ed. Kaswara, Max Müller, and Wenzel, Anecdota Oxoniensia, Aryan Series, Oxford, 1885.
- DSn Dhammasamgani, PTS.
- DV Daśavaikālika Sūtra, Devchand Lalbhai Pustakoddhārasamiti, No. 47.
- ERE Encyclopædia of Religion and Ethics, ed. Hastings.
- Ex Expositor, PTS (Translation Series).
- G° The edition of the MāU from the Gītā Press, Gorakhpur, 1893.
- GK Gaudapādakārikā.
- GM Ganaratnamahodadhi, ed. Bhīmasena Śarman, Prayāga (Allahabad), 1894.
  - HU Hitopadesa, ed. P. Peterson, Bombay, 1887.
  - HV Harivamsa.
    - ÍU Í šā Upanisad.

JM Jagadgururatnamālāstava of Sadāśivabrahmendra with the com. of Ātmabodhendra Sarasvatī included in Vedāntapañcaprakaranī, Srīvidyā Press, Kumbhakonam.

JS Jñānasārasamuccaya (Yes.śes.sñiń.po.kun.lasbtus.pa), now only in Tibetan. Cordier, III. p. 298.

JU Jābāla Upanisad.

KlU Kaivalya Upanisad.

KN Kūranārāyaņa.

KnU Kena Upanisad.

KP Kāśyapaparivarta, ed. Baron A. Von Staël-Holstein, Sanghai, 1926.

KtU Kausītaki Upanisad.

KU Katha Upanisad.

KV Kathāvatthu, PTS.

LA Lankāvatāra Sūtra, ed. Bunyiu Nanjio, Kyto, 1923.

LC Laghucandrikā, Śrīvidyā Press, Kumbhakonam, 1893.

LV Lalitavistara, ed. Le f m ann, Halle, 1902 and 1908.

MA Madhyamakāvatāra (Tibetan Text), BB, IX. French translation by Poussin, Le Muséon, 1907.

MAc Madhvācārya.

MAK Madhyamakālankārakārikā of Sāntiraksita, Tibetan Text, Sde.dge, Sa, 53a<sup>1</sup>-56b<sup>3</sup>. MāU Māṇdūkya Upaniṣad.

MB Mahābhārata, The South Indian Text, ed.

T. R. Krishnamacharya and
T. R. Vyasacharya, Kumbhakonam. 1906-1914.

MBU Mandalabrāhmanopanisad.

MD Mimāmsādarsana.

M° The edition of the MāU by Maheśacandra Pāla, Calcutta, 1806 Saka Era.

MHK Madhyamakahṛdayakārikā of B h a v y a, Tibetan Text, Sde.dge, Dza, 1b<sup>1</sup>=40b<sup>7</sup>.

MHKV Madhyamakahıdayakārikāvitti Tarkajvālā of Bhavya, Tibetan, Sde.dge, Dza,  $40b^{7}$ - $329b^{4}$ .

MK Mūlāmadhyamakakārikā of Nāgārjuna, BB, IV.

MKU Muktikā Upaniṣad.

MM Mahārthamañjarī with commentary, Parimala, TSS.

MN Majjhima Nikāya, PTS.

MNs Mahāniddesa, PTS.

MnU Mahānāradīya Upanisad (Minor Upanisads, Adyar).

MnU Mānasollāsa of Sureśvara, Nirnayasagar Press, Bombay, 1959, V.E., 1825 S.E.

MP Manorathapūranī, Mahāmukuṭarājavidyālaya Siam, 2463 Buddha Era.

MPñ Milindapañha, ed. V. Trenckner, London, 1928,

#### ĀGAMAŚĀSTRA

v MS or) Mahāyānasūtrālankāra, ed. Sylvain Lévi, MSA S Paris, 1907; French Tr., 1911. MSBT, MVBT, or MVST, q.v. Mahāsaddanīti. ed. A. Seelananda MSt Thera. Colombo, 1909. Mīmāmsāślokavārttika, Chaukhamba Sanskrit **MSV** Series, 1896. Madhvāntavibhāgatikā, ed. S. Yamguchi, MT Nagao, 1934. MU Maitrí Upanisad. MuU Mundaka Upanisad. Madhyamakavıtti, ed. Louis de La MV Vallée Poussin. BB. IV. **MVBT** Madhyāntavibhāgasūtrabhāsyatīkā, ed. V. Bhattacharya and G. Tucci, Part I. Calcutta Oriental Series, 1932. MVD Madhyāntavibhanga Discourse, translated from Sanskrit by Th. Stcherbatsky, BB, XXX, 1936. Madhyāntavibhāga tīkā of Sthiramati, MVT édition per Susumu Yamaguchi Nagoya, 1934. MVg Mahāvagga of Vinaya, ed. H. Oldenberg, London, 1879.  $MVt^{1}$ Mahāvyutpatti, ed. Sakaki, Japan.  $MVt^2$ Mahāvyutpatti, ed. Minaeff, BB. MVu Mahāvastu, ed. E. Senart, Paris, 1882-97.

N

Nāgārjuna.

NAT Nyāyāmṛtaṭaraṅgiṇī of Rāmācārya, ed. T. R. Krishnacharya, Nirnayasāgar.

NK Nyāyakandalī on Praśastapādabhāṣya, Vizianagram Sanskrit Series, No. 6, 1895.

NPTU Nṛsimhapūrvatāpanī Upaniṣad.

NPU Naradaparivrājaka Upanisad.

NS Nyāyasūtra.

NSi Naiskarmyasiddhi with Candrikā, ed. G. A. Jacob, Bombay, 1891.

NSt Nirupamastotra in Two Hymns of Catuhstava of Nāgārjuna, ed. G. Tucci, JRAS, 1932, pp. 309 ff.

Nt Nirukta of Yāska.

NUTU Nṛsiṃhottaratāpanī Upaniṣad.

Purusottama.

Pāņ Pāņini.

PAS Prajñāpāramitārthasamgraha of Dinnāga as quoted by Obermiller in his paper The Doctrine of Prajñāpāramitā, Reprint from Acta Orientalia, Vol. XI.

PB Praśastapādabhāsya, ed. V. Dvivedin, Vizianagram Sanskrit Series, No. 6, Benares, 1895.

PD Pañcadaśi of Vidyāraņya.

PO Poona Orientalist.

PP Padma Purāņa.

PS<sup>1</sup> Paramārthasāra, of Ādiśeṣa, Trivandrum Sanskrit Series, No. XII, 1911.

#### A GTS A MA A A

xxvi	ĀGAMAŚĀSTRA
PS²	—of Abhinavagupta, ed. L. D. Barnett, JRAS, 1910, pp. 707 ff.
PS <sup>t</sup>	—of Ādiśeṣa, Transliterated Text, English Translation and Notes, ed. S. S. Suryanarayana Sastri,
	Karnatak Publishing House, 1941.
PSP	Pañcaviṃśatisāhasrikā Prajñāpāramitā, ed.
	Nalinaksha Dutt, Calcutta
	Oriental Series, No. 28, 1934.
PU	Prasna Upanisad.
PV	Pramāṇaviniścaya of Dharmakīrtti,
	Tibetan Text. Cordier, III, p. 298.
$PVk^{1}$	Pramāṇavārttika of Dharmakīrtti, ed.
	Rahula Sāṅkṛtyāyana, Patna, 1938.
$PVk^2$	Pramāṇavārttika of Dharmakīrtti with
	Manoratha Nandin's Commentary,
	ed. Rahula Sāṅkṛtyāyana, Patna.
RPR	Review of Philosophy and Religion.
RUTU	Rāmottaratāpanī Upaniṣad.
RV	Ŗgveda
Ś	Šankarācārya.
$S\bar{a}S$	Sāṅkhyasūtra.
· ŚB	Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.
SDS	Sarvadarśanasaṃgraha, BI, 1858.
SK	Sāṅkhyakārikā of Īśvara kṛṣṇa.
SKr	Sūtrakṛtāṅga Sūtra, Āgamodaya Samiti, 1917
SMV	Śārīrakamīmāṃsābhāṣyavārttika, ed. An an ta
	krishna Sastri and Ashokanath
~	Bhattacharya, Asutosh Sanskrit

Series, No. 1, Calcutta, 1941.

CN1	a Nu Des
SN	Saṃyutta Nikāya, PTS.
SNS	Sandhinirmocanasūtra, Texte Tibétain, édité
-	et tradiut per Etienne Lamotte,
	Louvain et Paris, 1935.
SNt	Suttanipāta, PTS.
SP <sup>1</sup>	Saddharmapuṇḍarīka, BB, 1912.
SP <sup>2</sup>	Saddharmapúṇḍarīka, ed. U. Wogihara,
DI.	1934.
SR or SRS	Samādhirājasūtra, ed. Rai Sarat
	Chandra Das Bahadur and
	Pandit Sarat Chandra Sastri,
	Fasc. 1, Buddhist Text Society, Calcutta,
	1898.
SS	Subhāṣitasaṃgraha, ed. C. Bendall, Le
	Muséon, N.S. IV. 1903; V. 1904.
ŚS	Śikṣāsamuccaya, ed. C. Bendall, BB,
	1902.
SS	Saddarśanasamuccaya with Gunaratna's
•	Com., ed. L. Suali, BI, 1905 ff.
SŚP	Saptaśatikā Prajñāpāramitā, ed. G. Tucci,
-	Roma, 1923.
SSS	
້າກາດ	Sarvasiddhāntasangraha, ed. Premsundar
e. 3 1 7 7	Bose, Calcutta, 1919.
St. LA	Studies in Lankāvatāra Sūtra by D. T.
£1.1	Suzuki, London, 1930.
śU	Švetāśvatara Upaniṣad, Anandashram, 1905.
\$V	Sivasūtravimarsini of Ksemarāja, ed.
	J. C. Chatterjee, The Kashmir
	Series of Texts and Studies, Vol. I, 1911.
TA	Taittirīya Āraņyaka, Anandashram, 1898.

xxviii	ĀĢAMASĀSTRĀ
TAl	Tattvaratnāvalī of Advayavajra in Advayavajrasamgraha ed. Haraprasad Shastri, Gaekwad's Oriental Series, No. LX, 1927.
TAk	Tantrāloka of Abhinavagupta, Kashmir Series of Texts and Studies, No. XXX.
TG	Theragāthā, PTS.
TJ	Tarkajvālā, See MHKV.
Tk	Trimsikā of Vasubandhu, ed. Sylvain Lévi in the Vijnaptimātrasiddhi, Paris, 1925.
TM	Tattvamuktākalāpa and Sarvārthasiddhi of Veňkaṭanātha Deśika with the Ānandadāyinī and the Bhāvaprakāśa, Bibliotheca Sanskritica, Mysore, 1933, 1940.
TP	Tattvaprakāśa, Trivandrum Sanskrit Series, 1926.
TS .	Tattvasamgraha of Śāntirakṣita, Gaekwad's Oriental Series, Nos. XXX and XXXI, 1926.
TSN .	Trisvabhāvanirdeśa of Vasubandhu, ed. Sujitkumar Mukhopadhyaya, Visvabharati, 1939.
TSP	Tattvasamgrahapañjikā of Kamalaśīla, See TS.
TTU TU	Tripurātāpanī Upanisad. Taittirīya Upanisad.

To Tantravārttika of Kumārila as printed with the Sābarabhāsya on the MD, Anandashram Series.

U or UP Upanisad. ...

UC -- Uttaracarita of Bhavabhūti.

US Upadeśasāhasrī.

VāP Vāyu Purāṇa.

Vbh Vibhangá, PTS.

Vc or Vch Vajracchedikā Prajñāpāramitā, ed. Max Müller, Anecdota Oxoniensia, 1881.

VeS Vedāntasāra, ed. G. A. Jacob, Nirnayassgar Press, Bombay, 1894.

ViP Viṣṇu Purāṇa.

Vis Vijňaptimātratāsiddhi, La Siddhi de Hiuan-Tsang traduite et annotée par Louis de La Vallée Poussin, Paris, 1928-29.

ViV Vigrahavyāvartanī, ed. K. P. Jayswal and Rāhula Sānkṛtyāyana, JBORS, XXIII.

Vk Viṃśatikā of Vasubandhu. See Tk.

VM Visuddhimagga, PTS.

VP Vinayapitaka, ed. H. Oldenberg, London, 1879-1883.

VS Vājasaneyi-samhitā.

VSN Viṣṇusahasranāma, Bibliotheca Sanskritica, Mysore, No. 19.

VSt Vaiśesika Sūtra.

- VV Śrīvātulasūtravṛtti, Kashmir Series of Texts and Studies, No. 39.
- YB Yogācārabhūmi of Asanga, MS with the present author.
- YS Yogaśāstra of Hemacandra, Bibliotheca Indica, 1907.
- YS Yogasūtra.
- YV Yogavāsistha Rāmāyaṇa, Nirṇayasāgar Press, 1918.

#### INTRODUCTION

#### § 1. The Mandakya Upanisad and its Extent

What work or works are we to understand by the name of MāU? And what is its real extent?

It is generally believed that the MāU comprises only the twelve prose passages beginning with "om ity etad akṣaram" and ending with "ātmānam ya evam veda" (see pp. 223-25). It is also assumed that the kārikās of Gaudapāda are mere explanation of these passages. These two works are thus separate, though related to each other very closely as text and commentary.

But this is not admitted on all hands. Some hold that the Upanisad is composed not only of the twelve prose passages referred to above, but also of the kārikās, twenty-nine in all, attributed to Gaudapāda, as contained in Book I. Thus according to them those prose passages and the kārikās in Book I are regarded as Upanisad or śruti.<sup>2</sup> This view seems to have partly

Of these passages the first seven are found with slight variations in some cases also in NPTU, IV. 1-2; NUTU, II; and RUTU, 5.

In 1925 I had an occasion to write (IHQ, Vol. I, pp. 119ff.) with regard to the present subject that this view was at least as old as Madhvācārya (1199-1274 A.D.), the great champion of the Dvaita school of the Vedānta philosophy. For, according to him and his followers, such as Vyāsatīrtha and Śrīnivāsa, both the prose passages and the kārikās referred to are handed down by Varuņa in the form of a maṇḍūka 'frog' (see the commentary on the MāU by Madhvācārya with Śrī-

been subscribed to by Sankara, the commentator of MaU, who says in the introduction to his commentary

nivāsīya, Kumbhakonam, pp. 2-3). In support of it Madhvācārya quotes the following two passages from the PP and HV respectively:

- (i) dhyāyan nārāyaṇam devam praṇavena samāhitaḥ | maṇḍūkarūpi varuṇas tuṣṭāva harim avyayam ||
- (ii) iti maṇḍūkarūpī san dadarsa varuṇaḥ śrutim |

These lines are not found, so far as I know, in printed editions of the works.

Here Madh vā cār ya writes (ibid., p. 2): maṇḍūkarūpiṇā varuṇena catūrūpo nātāyaṇo 'tra stūyate. He regards the kārikās as mantras which are said to have been visioned by Brahman, the creator. On this he quotes the following couplet not yet traced in the same work (p. 8):

brahmadışıan ato mantran pramanam salilesvarah ( atra sloka bhavantiti cakaraivam prithak pithak (

Vyāsatīrtha's tikā, too, introduces the kārikās under mantras.

The commentator of NPTU, who is known by the name of Sankaracārya and identical with the author of the Prapañcasāra, a Tantiic work (see my paper, Sankara's Commentaries on the Upanisads, in Sir Asutosh Mookerjee Silver Jubilee Volumes, Orientalia, 2, pp. 101 ff, and against it Raghuvara Mitthulal Shastri: Proceedings and Transactions, Fifth Indian Oriental Conference, 1928, Vol. 1, pp. 691 ff., as well as T. R. Chintamani: Proceedings and Transactions, Third Oriental Conference, Madras, 1924, pp. 419 ff.) is also of the same opinion, though he does not give particulars as to whether the rsi 'seer' of the Upanisad is Varuna or whether the karikas are seen by Brahman, the creator. Kuranarayana, another commentator of MaU belonging to the Ramanuja school of the Vedanta maintains the same view taking the kārikās in Book I as mantras, which, in his opinion, too, together with the prose passages form the original Upanisad. Appayya Diksita (a person different from the celebrated author of the Siddhantalesa) who is a commentator of the one hundred and eight Upanisads, seems to subscribe to the same views, for his commentary on the Upanisad extends only up to the prose passages and the kārikās of Book I. See the Catalogue of Sonskrit Manuscripts in the Adyar Library, Vol. I, Upanisads, pp. 116, 287-8.

After what I wrote as above in 1925, so far as my information goes, it was B. N. Krishnamurti Sarma who in 1931 took up the case in right earnest and advocated it very strongly. His first paper (New Light on the Gaudapādakārikā) appeared in RPR, Vol. II, No. 1, pp. 35 ff. He wanted

on it that the first of the four sections (prakaraṇa-catuṣṭaya) of the Āgamaśāstra begins with "om ity etad akṣaram" (MāU, I), though the question as to whether that particular section or all the sections are regarded as śruti or not is not raised by him. Leaving aside what is said by this Saṅkara whose identity with the great author of the commentary on the Brahmasūtras is doubtful," it appears plausible that the view under discussion dates back at least from the time of Rāmānuja (1055-1137, A.D.), as he seems to quote in his commentary on BS, I. I. I, a kārikā of Gauḍapāda (I. 16) as śruti.

mainly to show that Madhvācārya cannot rightly be accused of holding the view that the karıkas in Book I are regarded as śruti, and form a part of the original MaU. In doing so he tried to demonstrate that teachers "of the three schools of Vedanta, such as Sankara, Anandagiri, Madhusüdana, Brahmānanda, Rāmānuja, Kūranārāyana, Mahācārya, Madhva, Jayatīrtha, Vyāsācārya svāmin, Rāmācārya, etc.," are of the same opinion. In the same journal (RFR, 1932, Vol. III, No. 1; 1933, Vol. IV. No. 2) he wrote two papers more on the same subject. His writings gave rise to an interesting and long controversy in which took part some scholars, such as Y. Subrahmanya Sharma (RPR, 1933, Vol. IV, No. 3), and A. Venkata Subbiah (PO, 1936, Vol. I. Nos. 1-2), B. N. Krishnamurti's rejoinder being given in PO, 1936, Vol. I, No. 2, and 1937, Vol. II, No. 1. Besides, A. Venkata Subbiah wrote in IA, 1933, pp. 181 ff. an independent paper entitled The Mandalyopanisad and Gaudapada which deserves to be mentioned in this connection.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Those who think that the two Śańkaras, the author of the Sārīrakabhāṣya on BS and the author of the commentary on ĀŚ, are one and the same should consider in the latter not only the question of maṅgalācaraṇa, the inferior quality of composition of the ślokas, the defect of metre (Ā n a n d a g i r i 's explanation can hardly be accepted), and the grammatical mistakes, but also the explanation offered of such kārikās as 1. 10, 11. 37, 111. 25, and IV. 83 as to whether it is possible for the former. Cf. here his explanation of the words bhūta and abhūta in III. 23 with that in IV. 3; of sambhūta in III. 25 with that of IU, 12. See note 2.

He writes: jīvasyaiva hi nirodhaḥ śrūyate<sup>o</sup> anādimāyayā supto yadā jīvaḥ prabudhyata (I. 16) iti ca. By the word śrūyate evidently he regards the line as śruti.

R. N. Krishnamurti Sarma thinks that the above date is to be pushed back to the time of Suresyara, the author of the BBV or even that of Sankara, the author of the Sarīrakabhasya on BS. But in spite of what he has said in support of the view one can hardly accept it when the statements made by the above two teachers themselves are taken into consideration. Sure svara quotes AS, I. 11 (kārvakārana°) in his NSi, IV. 41, and tells us (Op. cit., IV. 44) that it is said by the revered Gaudas. The word Gauda here refers to Gaudapāda. As regards Sankara, he, too, quotes in his commentary on BS, II. 1. 9, a kārikā of Gaudapāda (anādimāyayā°, I. 16), and says it is a saying of those teachers who know the tradition of the Vedanta," just as said by him in another case (BS, 1. 4. 14) with regard to another kārikā of Gaudapāda (mṛllohao, III. 15).6 Here Suresvara and Sankara say in the clearest possible language that the kārikās referred to above are by revered teachers.7 Hence, according to them, they are not śruti.

i evam gaudair drāvidair naḥ pūjyair ayam arthaḥ prabhāṣiṭaḥ. Th's line, as in the printed text is metrically defective. The word ayam seems to be omitted here.

<sup>5</sup> atroktam vedāntasampradāyavidbhir ācāryaiḥ.

tathā ca sampradāyavido vadanti.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> For detailed discussion of this question readers are referred to the scholars and their papers mentioned in note 2 of this section.

In the face of this clear statement, the passages from some works attributed to Sankara, and as such of doubtful authority, which are quoted by B. N. Krishnamurti Sarma in order to support his view that the kārikās of the Book I are śruti, do not, as it appears to me, carry any particular weight.

Sureśvara's words, viz., vedāntokti with regard to GK, I. 14, and āgamaśāsana with regard to GK, I. 3, which are quoted by him for the same purpose from BBV, I. 4. 615 and 744 respectively, do not necessarily imply that the kārikās are śruti in the primary sense of the word, for the same author, Sureśvara, takes elsewhere, as we have already seen, one (I. 11) of the GK kārikās of Book I in which the above two kārikās are included, as a statement of Gaudapāda. We should remember here that the above phrases are applicable also to works of human origin dealing with the Vedānta or Āgama.

That this controversy is not new, but an old one is known from the words of Rāmācārya, the author of the NAT, p. 223, where with regard to the two kārikās of Gauḍapāda, I. 17 and 18, he raises the question as to whether they are śruti, and arrives at the conclusion that they are really so.8

Thus we reach the conclusion that at least from the time of  $R \bar{a} m \bar{a} n u j a$ , the author of the  $Sr\bar{b}h\bar{a}sya$  of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> See RPR, 1933, Vol. IV, No. 2. It is interesting to note here that sometimes the kārikās of Book I of GK is referred to as Gaudapādīyoktašruti (LC, p. 580), and Māṇḍūkyopaniṣadvivaraṇa-Gaudapādīyavārttika (NAT, p. 123b). The reader may think over here as to how these two words are used here loosely.

BS, there were some authoritative teachers according to whom the kārikās of Book I of the GK were regarded as śruti and as such they formed a part of the MāU.

Speaking generally our old teachers were śraddhādeva, 'trustful,' to use the word of the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa (1. 1. 4. 15), with regard to the authenticity of our sacred or Sanskrit texts. Any work dealing with Upanisadic matter would readily be accepted by them as Upanisad." Remember the number of Upanisads and their language, subject matter and the way of treatment therein. Are they all Upanisads, though they are called so? The Bhagavadgītā is not an Upanisad in fact, yet, it bears the name. We all know its colophon in which occurs the following: iti śrīmadbhagavadgītāsu upanisatsu. And it is so only owing to the fact that it is like an Upanisad. The practice of taking what is actually not an Upanisad as an Upanisad appears to have been in existence from the time of Pāṇini, as says Satyavrata Sāmaśramin in his Trayiparicaya, Calcutta, 1893, p. 69. From his work (I. 4. 79)10 we may gather a word, upaniṣatkṛtya, which means 'having made like an Upanisad.' Does it not lead us to conclude as above? But grammarians differ here on the meaning of the word Upanișad, according to some it being tattvajñāna, the 'knowledge of reality,' while to others, rahasya, a 'secret' or 'secret doctrine'. Let us take here the case of Purāṇas. A Purana is said to have 'five characteristics' (puranam pañcalakṣaṇam). But there are Purānas which are, in

<sup>9</sup> See Śańkara on BG, II. 19 and 20 where he uses the words rc and mantra referring to the above two stanzas.

<sup>10</sup> jīvikopaniṣadāv aupamye.

fact, not so, though they are known to us under the same name. Similar is the case with regard to Upanisads and other works. It may be noted here in this connexion that it is not only the Book I of GK but also the remaining three Books of it which are sometimes held to be Upanisads, as Advaitaprakarana Up., Alataśāntiprakarana Up., etc.<sup>11</sup>

We have seen above that according to some authorities including specially Madhvācārya only Book I of GK is sruti, and the last three books are not so, and as such they do not form any part of MaU, as does Book I. In other words, they form a separate work or works with which the former has no connexion. If it is not so, it will be very difficult to explain as to why the last three Books are not commented upon by those teachers. Why have they explained only the Book I? It cannot be said that these last three Books were not known to them or in their time, as their existence before them can very satisfactorily be proved by the very simple fact that the great Sankara who flourished long before them has quoted in his commentary on BS, I. 4. 14, a kārikā (III. 15) from one of those three Books.

The fact that they did not comment upon the last three Books can be explained in two ways. First, it might have been their honest belief that those three Books had no connexion whatsoever with the MāU which, according to them, comprised only the twelve prose passages

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> See MSS labelled ZZE of BBRAS. Similarly each of the five chapters of the NPTU is regarded as a separate Upanişad. The case is the same with the TU, the three chapters (Sikṣāvallī, Brahma°, and Bhṛgu°) of which are held to be three Upanişads.

and the twenty-nine kārikās of Book I of GK. Secondly, it might be said that they could not explain them, for the dominant thoughts therein, viz., Advaitavāda 'absolute monism' and Vijñānavāda 'idealism' would go against their own views, viz., Dvaitavāda 'dualism' or Višiṣṭādvaitavāda 'qualified monism.' The first answer seems to be more reasonable than the second, for had they known that the last three Books, too, were really included in or connected with the original Upaniṣad they would have undoubtedly explained them, as is done 12 by Puruṣottama, the grandson of Vallabhācaita 'pure monism' school of the Vedānta. 13

## § 2. The Relationship between the Prose Passages and the Kārikās in Book I

As Madhvācārya says,1 the twelve prose passages of the Upaniṣad are divided into four parts.2

<sup>12</sup> I have seen the commentary only on the first two Books as edited by Bhaṭṭa Ramānātha Śāstrin and published from Puṣṭimārga-Kāryālaya, Bombay, Vikrama 1980. That Puruṣottama wrote or intended to write his commentary also on Book III (Advaita Prakaraṇa) is known from his own words (advaitākhye vicārayiṣye), p. 55. It seems that he commented or intended to do so also on the last Book.

<sup>13</sup> It is known from the Tibetan sources that in about the first half of the eighth century A.D. the GK was regarded as an *Upanişat śāstra* (gsań baḥi.bstan. bcos). For Kamalaśīla, a disciple of Śāntirakṣita 1705-763 A.D.) and the author of the *Pañjikā* of his MAK quotes some kārikās from Books II and III of our work which he calls *Upaniṣat śāstra*. It is to be noted that Kamalaśīla's remark cannot be considered with reference only to the above two Books.

<sup>1</sup> MāU with Śrīnivāsīyavitti, p. 8.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Part I, passages 1-6; Part II, passages 7; Part III, passages 8-11; and Part IV, passage 12.

Just after each of them there is a line: atraite ślokā bhavanti 'here are these ślokas.' These introductory lines when compared with similar sentences in different Upaniṣads will show that the ślokas are quoted there only to support what has been stated before. And we have already seen that Madhvācārya and others, specially the former, say the very thing quite clearly. Thus it follows from it that the ślokas or kārikās were already in existence and the prose passages came into being afterwards.

This will be confirmed if we compare the contents of the prose passages with those of the corresponding kārikās. The comparison will further show that it is the kārikās on which the prose passages are based and not vice versa.

Supposing that the kārikās are explanations of the Upaniṣad, i.e., of the twelve prose passages which are generally held to be so, one may naturally expect to see the difficult points in the latter explained in the former. And it also goes without saying that an exposition may add something new to what is said in the original, but it does not or should not omit the most important and difficult words or points in it. If these facts are borne in mind, it will be evident that it is the kārikās that should be regarded as the earlier work, and not the prose passages.

<sup>3</sup> See BU, IV. 3. 11, 4.8: tad ete ślokā bhavanti; Op. cit., II. 2.3, IV. 4 6, 7: tad eşa śloko bhavati; ChU, II. 21.3, III. 11.1, etc.: tad eṣa ślokaḥ; TU, II. 1, 2.1, etc.: tad apy eṣa śloko bhavati; ChU, III. 12.5: tad etad ṛcābbyuktam.

According to the general view, kārikās 1-5 are to be taken as the exposition of the prose passages 3-5.1 Now the words saptānga 'with seven limbs,' and ekonavimśatimukha 'with nineteen mouths' in the passages 3 and 4 are the most difficult and they are explained differently by different commentators; but not even the slightest mention of them is made in the kārikās. Why should the kārikās which are supposed to have been written in order to explain the text, i.e., the prose passages, omit these two important words?

Again, in the prose passages 3 and 9 we have the word vaiśvānara and not viśva, while in the kārikās (1. 1-4, 19, 23) there is only viśva and never vaiśvānara. Why is this discrepancy? A commentator is to explain what is actually found in the text, he is not allowed to take the liberty of changing it. Nor are the two words vaiśvānara and viśva identical or synonymous. It is difficult to account for this alteration. That it is owing to the exigency of metre is an absurd hypothesis.

In this connexion, there are three words more, viz., jāgaritasthāna, svapna<sup>o</sup>, and suṣupta<sup>o</sup> in the prose passages 3, 4 and 5 respectively. But they are entirely omitted in the kārikās. But why? It cannot be explained away by simply saying that they are not so important or difficult as to require any explanation; for, in order to

It is to be noted that the first two passages have nothing in the karikas as we have them before us.

<sup>5</sup> See Shere and on NPTU, IV; Madhva, KN, and P on the passages; Vidyāraņya on NUTU, I; and Nārāyaņa on RUTU, 3.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Note there is prajū̃anaghana in the prose passage 5, for which we have ghanaprajū̃a in kārikā 1.

understand the main thought of the passages the importance of these three stages, viz., wakefulness, dream, and deep sleep, can in no way be ignored.

The fact is that the kārikās are older, and from them, as well as from some older Upanisads, the MaU, i.e., the prose passages to which that name is usually given is compiled or made. and in doing so some of the thoughts of these kārikās and of some older Upanisads are here in the prose passages simplified, modified or explained adding something new. Thus, it appears, in the present case, the author of the prose passages having found the word viśva in its special sense nowhere in the Upanisads 8 seems to have substituted for it vaiśvānara which is used in such old Upanisads as ChU (V. 11. 12) and BU (V. 9. 1).9 Now the author of NUTU, I where the entire MaU is quoted with some slight variants,10 seeing both the words viśva in the kārikās and vaiśvānara 11 in the older Upanisads. has adopted both of them 12 and simplified the text to some extent.13 As to why these two terms are taken together in NUTU and what is

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> See pp. 223 ff., and Deussen: Upanisads des Veda, p. 574.

<sup>8</sup> Excepting perhaps MU, VI. 7 which is not so old.

<sup>9</sup> On the greatness of Vaiśvānara see RV, I. 59. 6; 98. 1; Nt, VII. 21-23; BS, I. 2, 32.

<sup>10</sup> The MaU is almost entirely found also in NPTU, I.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> For a different view of Viśva-Vaiśvānara, Taijasa and Prājūa cf. Iśvara and Prājūa, Hiraṇyagarbha and Taijasa, and Vaiśvānara and Taijasa in PD, I. 16-29.

Sthūlabhuk caturātmā viśvo vaiśvānaraḥ prathamaḥ pādaḥ.

<sup>13</sup> This is also with NPTU, I. For example, sūkṣma is substituted here for pravivikta in the kārikās. Here sūkṣma is undoubtedly simpler than pravivikta. For details the reader is referred to that Up.

their special significance is clearly shown by V i d y ā - r a n y a in his tīkā on it and in PD I. 28-29. See also VeS, § 17.

Similarly the three states, jāgarita, svapna, and suṣupta in the prose passages (3-4) are later additions from BU, or ChU, or both for a clear exposition of the terms bahiṣprajña, antaḥprajña, and ghanaprajña in kārikā 1.

That the MāU (i.e., the prose passages) has drawn upon the kārikās and some other Upaniṣads can be gathered from the comparison of both the texts. In the kārikās we have simply ghanaprajāa (1) and ānandabhuj (3) or ānanda (4), while the prose passage (5) reads as follows (see p. 224):

yatra supto na kañcana kāmaṃ kāmayate na kañcana svapnaṃ paśyati (BU, IV. 3. 9) tat suṣuptam. suṣuptasthāna ekibhūtaḥ prajñānaghana (BU, IV. 5. 13) evānandamayo (TU, II. 5. 1) hy ānandabhuk cetomukhaḥ prājñas tṛtīyaḥ pādaḥ.

Which of these two, the kārikā and the prose passage, is the original, and which is the exposition, may now easily be ascertained.

The word ghanaprajña in the kārika is no doubt, identical with prajñānaghana in a somewhat different form, and to explain it the prose passage has introduced the word ekībhūta found, in fact, in the form of ekībhavati in different Upaniṣads.<sup>15</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> C.J. ekībhavati, BU, 6. IV. 4. 2 (seven times). See PU IV. 2 (twice); NPTU, IV. 1; NUTU, 1.

<sup>15</sup> See note 14,

The kārikā I. 19 runs thus:
viśvasyātvavivakṣāyām ādisāmānyam utkaṭam |
mātrāsampratipattau syād āptisāmānyam eva ca ||
And the corresponding prose passage (9) is this:

jāgaritasthāno vaiśvānaro 'kārah prathamā mātrāpter ādimattvād vā. āpnoti ha vai sarvān kāmān ādiś ca bhavati ya evam veda.

It means that Vaiśvānara whose sphere is the waking state is the first  $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$  'measure,' the letter a, on account of obtaining (or pervasiveness) or on account of its being the first ( $\bar{a}pter\ \bar{a}dimattv\bar{a}d\ v\bar{a}$ ). One who knows thus obtains one's all desires and becomes first of all.

Now, if these two texts are compared it will at once be clear that the second is merely the exposition of the first with a tinge of the language used in the Brāhmaṇas.

Here is one point more. In the first text the reason is advanced as to why Viśva (=Vaiśvānara of the second text) is to be regarded as the letter a. And the reason is sāmānya 'similarity'—similarity between Viśva and the letter a. And this similarity is 'beginning' (ādi) or 'obtaining' or 'pervasiveness' (āpti). Now, according to the order of Viśva, Taijasa and Prājña, Viśva is at the beginning or first (ādi); just so is at the beginning or first the letter a of a, u and m of which Om is composed. Owing to this similarity Viśva is said to be identical with the letter a. The second similarity is āpti which by Śankara is thus explained: As Viśva pervades all the visible world, so does the letter a all the speech. On account

of this similarity, too, Viśva is to be regarded as the letter a. The second text, however, gives a somewhat different explanation of this identity of Viśva and a. For, while the first text says that owing to both the similarities of ādi and āpti they are identical, the second text clearly says that it is owing to either of them (āpter ādimattvād vā). All these seem to be later developments.

The case is exactly the same with kārikās 1. 20, 21 and the corresponding prose passages 10 and 11 of the Upaniṣad, to which the reader is referred.

There is one thing more to be noted with regard to the kārikā 1. 21 and the corresponding prose passage 11 of the Upaniṣad. In the former one of the two similarities is  $m\bar{a}na$  'measure' from  $\sqrt{m\bar{a}}$  'to measure' while in the latter the word is not  $m\bar{a}na$ , but miti 'measure' from  $\sqrt{mi}$ . Similarly, while in the former we have apīti 'disappearance' from  $api-\sqrt{i}$ , in the latter there is laya 'disappearance.' There is, however, no difference of meaning, as shown, in the two cases. Yet, how far such divergency between an original text and its explanation in Sanskrit can be accounted for is to be considered seriously.

The conception of ātman as having four fourths or quarters (catuṣpād) is not so explicit in the words of kārikās 17 as in those of the Upaniṣad, 2. This idea

<sup>16</sup> One may, however, say that the word  $v\bar{a}$  in the text may be taken in the sense of ca or api. But Sankara or Sankarānanda does not say so.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> See I. 10-15 (where the fourth state is described), 24, and 29 (where-Ońkāra is described with or without  $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$ ).

is, however, fully developed in the Upanisad 2 from the very beginning. This fact also goes to show the priority of the kārikās.

The distinction between Turya or Turīya 'fourth' and the other three, viz., Viśva, Taijasa and Prājūa, as made in the kārikās (I. 10-15), has nothing corresponding in the Upaniṣad, but the nature of Turya, which is expressed in a kārikā (I. 29) simply by two words, śiva 'blissful' and dvaita-upaśama 'cessation of duality' is thus elaborated in two passages, 7 and 12, of the Upaniṣad:

- (i) nāntaḥprajāam na bahiṣprajāam nobhayataḥprajāam na prajāānaghanam na prajāam nāprajāam adṛṣṭam avyavahāryam agrāhyam alakṣaṇam acintyam avyapadeśyam ekātmapratyayasāram prapaācopaśamam śāntam śivam advaitam caturtham manyante. sa ātmā sa vijāeyaḥ.
- (ii) amātras caturtho 'vyavahāryaḥ prapancopasamaḥ sivo 'dvaita evam onkāra ātmaiva. samvisaty ātmanātmānam 18 ya evam veda.

These two passages are mere amplification or exposition of what is briefly said in the kārikā, I. 29, and consequently appear to be later developments, as shows also the language used here.

Again, it is to be noted that though in the Upanişad (1) Brahman or Ātman is said to have four quarters (catuṣpād) which are explained there later on (3-6), there is no express mention of them in the kārikās which are supposed to be an explanatory work.

IS See VS, XXXII. 11: ātmanātmānam abhisamviveša.

Compare the kārikā I. 24 with the prose passage 8 of the Upanisad and it will be found that the former is explained in the latter in some detail and not vice versa.

The kārikā (I. 6) opening the discussion about the origin (prabhava) of all things may be connected with the last part of the passage 6 of the Upaniṣad: prabhavāpyayau hi bhūtānām. Here prabhava is described in the kārikās I. 6-9 at some length, but apyaya 'disappearance' is not even touched in the kārikās. This would hardly be possible if the kārikās were meant to explain the Upaniṣad.

All these considerations lead me to conclude as follows:

- (i) The kārikās in Book I are not the exposition (vyākhyāna) of the MāU.
- (ii) The MāU is mainly based on the kārikās,<sup>20</sup> and not vice versa.
- (iii) And as such the MāU is later than the kārikās.<sup>21</sup>

Here we must remember what M a d h v ā c ā r y a has said on the point. Serious charges may be and have been brought against him saying "that he is addicted to the fabrication of evidence and that he very frequently cites passages from books which do not and

<sup>19</sup> It is taken from KU, II. 2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>20</sup> It has drawn much also upon some older Upanisads as will be seen from the text printed herewith, pp. 223 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup> See Max Walleser: Der älter Vedānta, p. 5. He says that the kārikās do not show that the Upanişad was before them.

did not at any time exist."22 Or Appayya Dīkṣita in his *Madhvamatavidhvaṃsana* may give a list of such books, or may say of him:

tathāpy ānandatīrthīyam matam agrāhyam eva naḥ | yatra vaidikamaryādā bhūyasy ākulatām gatā || 28

Or, again, most of the authorities cited by him in his commentary on the MāU may not be traced; or one may or may not attach any value to the myth he has given us that Varuna having assumed the form of a frog received the mantras, i.e., the kārikās originally visioned by Brahman, the creator; yet, in the present case, we have to accept, as we have shown above, his view that the mantras or kārikās are older and on them is based our MāU.<sup>21</sup>

# § 3. The Inter-relationship of the Four Books of the Āgamaśāstra

It is generally held that the Āgamaśāstra has four prakaraṇas or Books, viz., Āgamaprakaraṇa, Vaitathyao, Advaitao, and Alātaśānti.o Here arise the following questions: Are these Books, in fact, four parts of the same work, or are they four independent treatises compiled in one volume? Again, is it that

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>27</sup> A. Venkatasubbiah: IA, 1933, p. 189.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>23</sup> See RPR, Vol. II, p. 51.

This view was originally expressed by me long ago in IHQ, 1925, Vol. I, pp. 119-125, 295-302. Against this see S. K. Belvalkar's observation in his *Vedanta Philosophy* (Sreegopal Basu Mallik Lectures), Part I, pp. 192-193. But I do not think that the modification of my opinion is necessary.

while one or more of the Books form a work, the remaining one or ones constitute another work?

Sankara, the commentator, with his followers, holds that the four Books are the different parts of the same work entitled \$\bar{A}gama\sistra\$. And so, in order to show their mutual connexion first with reference to Books I and II, he writes just at the beginning of his commentary on Book II: "When (the Reality) is known there is no duality —This is already said (I. 18d)," and it is supported by such \( \sirutis\) as "There is only one without a second (ChaU, VI. 2. 1)." This is, however, only a statement of scripture (\( \bar{a}gamam\bar{a}tra\)). With a view to showing that the unreality of duality can be established also by reasoning (upapatti) Book II is begun with the words 'vaitathyam', etc.'

Now, as regards the relationship between Books II and III S observes (III. I): "The determination of

<sup>1</sup> Ś could easily refer here also to l. 16, 17 and 29. Moreover, in the manner which he has adopted in showing the relationship between the first two Books the following might also be added in his favour, as in his opinion the \$\overline{A}gamaprakaraṇa\$ begins with "Om ity etad akṣaram ity ādi," in other words, it includes the MāU. We read in the concluding kārikā (29) of Book I: dvaitasyopaśamaḥ śivaḥ, which is in fact the same as prapañcopaśamaṃ śāntaṃ śivaṃ and prapañcopaśamo 'dvaitah of the MāU, 7 and 12 respectively. This very thing is re-assured in Book II. 35 by a phrase which is exactly the same in sense as the above, ie, prapañcopaśamo 'dvaitah. Again, in I. 10 we have advaitaḥ sarvabhāvānām, and the same thing in one or other form is seen in many places in Book II: tasmād advayatā śivā (II. 33); advaite yojayet smṛtim (II. 36), advaitaṃ samanuprāpya (II. 36). Cf. here also advaitaṃ paramārtho hi (III. 18) And this truth is established there (II. 1 ft.) by strong reasons showing the unreality (vaitathya) of all things as in dream. Thus does it not show that these two Books are closely connected with each other?

Om is made only by a proposition (pratijnāmātra): 'The Atman is the cessation of expression, blissful and without a second, (MāU, 12).' It is also said that 'When (the Reality) is known there is no duality' (I. 29). There in the Book called Non-reality (vaitathya), i.e., II, the absence of duality is set forth by the illustrations of dream, magic, castle-in-air, etc. (II. 31), by reasons such as the 'capability of being seen' (diśyatva)<sup>2</sup> and 'the state of having the beginning and the end' (ādyantavattva), and also by reasoning (tarka). Now, it is asked: Is it that non-duality can be understood only by scripture or also by reasoning?' The reply is: It can be done also by reasoning. How is it? For this Book III is begun."

Finally with reference to Book IV. S says in introducing it: "Through the determination of Om non-duality is proposed (pratijnāta). It is then established (siddha) by showing the non-reality of the different external objects (in Book II). Again, in Book III it is directly ascertained by scripture (āgama) and reasoning concluding that it is the highest truth (III. 48). At the end it is hinted that the Dvaitins 'Dualists' and Vaināsikas 'Nihilists' are opposed to this view of non-duality which is the meaning of the scripture (āgama), and their views are wrong views as they cause such evil passions as attachment and aversion, on

Where is it in Book 11?

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> H. 7.

<sup>4</sup> advaitam kim ügamamätrena pratipattavyam ähosvit tarkenäpi,

In fact, it is not 'at the end' (ante), nor is it in any of the original karikas. It is the commentator's own observation. See the commentary on II. 7.

account of their mutual contradiction. As there is no place of evil passions in it, the view of non-duality is the right view, and as such it is praised. Now, here (in Book IV) having shown in details that their views are not right being mutually contradictory they are to be thrown away, and by doing so the establishment of the view of non-duality is to be concluded by the method of inference called avīta" 'negative.' For this, (the Book called) 'The Cessasion of the Fire-brand' is begun.''

Let us now examine the above statement of S. By his observation regarding the connexion between Books I and II, he wants to mean that though it is said in Book I that there is no duality, yet, it is merely an expression of agama, no reason being offered there in its favour. And so in order to support it by reasons Book II is written. But is it really so? Is it that there is no reasoning at all in Book I? None can give the answer in the affirmative. Certainly various reasons are advanced in Book II, but it cannot be said that Book I is altogether conspicuous by their absence. For, they are to be clearly found in kārikās 16-18, though not to that extent as in Book II. Here arises a question: If the connexion between Books I and II is really as it is shown by S to be, then why is it that the author of Book II himself does not say so just at its beginning, though he could do so easily? But instead of doing this he begins it without any reference to Book I, only alluding to the

<sup>6</sup> Ānandagiri unnecessarily takes it as āvīta saying that āvīta is nothing but avīta.

opinion of the wise that all things in dream are unreal. He could also write here that the determination of Om is through the realization of non-duality which depends on the unreality of external things, which is dealt with in Book II. But he has not done so.

Let us consider here another point. We have already seen that in accordance with some teachers such as Madhvācārya, the MāU is composed of the twelve prose passages and the twenty-nine kārikās in Book I. It is quite clear from it that, in their opinion, the work is a complete one having no connexion with any of the remaining three Books of the AS. This view seems to be confirmed by the fact that its subject matter, i.e., the determination of Om, is here dealt with completely, as one can easily understand from the last two kārikās of Book I, after reading which one does not feel that anything more remains to be further discussed and elucidated; and, in fact, we see nothing directly of Om in the following Book or Books. Thus it follows that the treatise consisting of the kārikas of Book I has no relationship to any of the Books that follow. It is also to be noted here that the views of the teachers referred to above cannot be ignored altogether.

Further, if Book II is a continuation of Book I, it could be expected that the former should somehow or other presuppose the latter. But does it do so? If so, where? Moreover, what does one lose if one takes Book II as an independent work on the advaita Vedānta? Does one find in reading this Book in that light anything improper, non-sensical or unintelligible without assuming

its connexion with Book I? Or does one really feel that without Book I it appears to be incomplete? That it is complete in itself will be clear if we attentively read at least the concluding portion of it, *i.e.*, kārikās 35-38.

Now with regard to the connexion between Books Il and III let us remember what \$ says. His words, put briefly, would amount to this that non-duality can be understood not only by agama, but by reasoning (tarka) as well. Consequently to exhibit the reasoning Book III is required. If that is so, we shall have to accept that according to \$ the object of both the Books Il and Ill is one and the same, i.e., giving the arguments for non-duality. In that case, why should there be two separate Books instead of one in which all could be included? This leads one to think of a different object for which Book III must have been written. And what this object was will be clear if one examines the contents with some amount of care. Here at the beginning (III. 1-2) the author tells us about 'nonorigination' (ajāti) and having established it concludes in the end(III. 48) that it is the highest truth (uttama satya). In doing so he discusses the Vedanta, and in that connexion the absence of difference between Jiva and Brahman. He treats also of a samādhi 'intense abstract concentration ' called asparsayoga meant for the realization of the Truth.

It is not that there is no mention of non-duality in this

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> These questions with necessary modifications here and there should be put in discussing the relationship also of the following Books.

Book. It is there (III. 18),8 but only incidentally, and as such is not discussed. But can one say rightly that because of the mention of non-duality in this Book, Books II and III must have some direct connexion between them? If so, is it not that there will be no difficulty whatsoever in finding out a relationship between any two works on the same subject? But that relationship will certainly not be as that between the different chapters of the same work. It is to be noted that S himself has not suggested such relationship. Thus it appears to me that there is nothing against one's thinking that Book III, too, is an independent work on advaita Vedānta.

We now come to Book IV. It has already been seen how S wants to connect it with the preceding Books. He assumes that the views of Dvaitins and Vaināśikas are to be shown in details in this Book as wrong, and by doing so the conclusion is to be established that the theory of non-duality is right. First, we are to examine here as to how far this assertion can be accepted. Let us take for granted that, as he says, owing to their mutual contradiction the views of the Dvaitins and the Vaināśikas are wrong and this is to be shown in detail in this Book. But where and how much is it done? Dvaitins are referred to by the word vādins 'disputants' only in two places (IV. 3 and 6); but even there in

<sup>8</sup> Book III. 18: advaitam paramārtho hi See Book I, 17: advaitam paramārthatah.

<sup>9</sup> See III. 17.

<sup>10</sup> Com. on IV. 1: tad iha vistarena anyonyaviruddhatayā asamyagdarsanatvam pradarsya, tatpratisedhenādvaitadarsanasiddhir upasamhartavyā.

the first place, though only their mutual contradiction is simply referred to, no detail of it is to be found. There is no allusion to Vaināśikas in this Book. But if by that word the Buddhists are meant, no mutual contradiction with the Dvaitins, (or among themselves,) is to be found of their views. On the contrary, the author of the AS has accepted or approved of them throughout the Book as the present writer has attempted to show. How is it then that in accordance with S, one can expect to understand from this Book that the views of the Dvaitins and the Vaināśikas are wrong and the view of non-duality is right? Thus one can hardly connect in this way the present Book with the preceding one or ones. We should also remember here the questions that have already been put in discussing the relationship between Books I and II. See p. lii.

Is there then no relationship of any kind between Books IV and others? How can it be so? Certainly there is a relationship and it is rather a close one, as the following lines will show. A careful reader will see that a large number of expressions in various forms in the first three Books are literally quoted or alluded to in Book IV. And it will be noticed that some matters dealt with in the former are done so again in the latter. For instance, I.  $16^c = 111$ .  $36^a = 1V$ .  $81^a$ ; II. 6-7=1V.  $31-32^{11}$ ; (cf. II. 1, 4 with IV. 33, and II. 2 with IV.  $34^{12}$ ); III. 20-22=1V.  $6-8^{13}$ ; III. 29-30

<sup>11</sup> See III. 2, 48; IV. 4, 5.

<sup>12</sup> The second half is, however, identical.

<sup>13</sup> Here is a slight variation, and it is that for the word bhava in the former there is dharma in the latter with regard to the first and the last karikas.

=IV. 61-62<sup>11</sup>; III. 48=IV. 71. Besides, such expressions or topics as the following are to be found in more than one Book: jñeyābhinna jñāna 'the knowledge is not different from the knowable' is in III. 33 and IV. 1; ajātivāda 'the theory of non-origination' in III. 2 ff and IV. 3 ff. Such being the case it must be accepted that Book IV is rather closely related to other Books.

But this relationship is not such as between a work and its different chapters on the following grounds:

With reference to later Sanskrit works it is a well-known practice that their commencement is with a mangalācaraṇa 'prayer for success' which includes a namaskāra 'paying homage' to one for whom the authors have regard. Now, as we have at the very beginning of Book IV a kārikā embodying mangalācaraṇa, it naturally induces one to think that it is not a chapter of any work, but itself an independent work.

It is, however, true that mangalācaraṇa is found not only at the commencement of a work, but also in other places of it, as in the case of the Nyāyakandalī of Śrīdhara on the Praśastapādabhāṣya, or of the Sañjīvanī of Mallinātha on the Raghuvaṃśa. But it is to be noted here that in such cases it is done in each of the chapters, and not in any particular one, whereas in the present case, here in ĀŚ we have it

With the following variations: For spandate māyayā manaḥ in III there is cittam calati māyayā in IV, and for manaḥ in III there is cittam in IV.

only in Book IV, so far as the extant editions and the MSS that are examined can show.15 Here we may remember a Buddhist work. viz.. the Pañjikā of Prajñākara mati on the Bodhicaryāvatāra. It consists of nine chapters. Here the mangalacarana is only in the first 16 and the last chapters, and not in others. Evidently the mangalacarana at the beginning of its chapter IX does not mean to say that it is an independent work. Considering the contents of this chapter of both the Bodhicaryāvatāra and its Panjikā, which deal with prajñāpāramitā, it appears to me that the only thing that can be said is this that the mangalacarana of the Pañjikā simply suggests a special importance of both the works, the Panjika and the BA. Thus the mangalacarana of Book IV cannot conclusively show that it is an independent work and not the continuation of the preceding ones. But here is a thing which should not be left unnoticed. Both at the beginning and at the end of Book IV there is a mangalacarana in the form of namaskara 'paying homage.' Does it not imply that the Book is an independent work and complete in itself?

Let us discuss here another point. We have already seen that a number of kārikās in Books II and III

<sup>15</sup> We have some ground to think that at the beginning of Book I a few kārikās are now missing. It is not improbable that there was a mangalācaraņa in those kārikās.

<sup>16</sup> As the first folio of the MS, the basis of the present edition (Bibliotheca Indica) of BAP is lost, and the second one, in some parts illegible, is broken down, the beginning lines of BAP could not be printed. Hence it could not be ascertained from the edition as to whether there is any mangalācaraṇa at the beginning. Yet, from its Tibetan version we know that it actually exists.

are repeated in Book IV. Why is this repetition? Moreover, certain things treated of before are discussed again in Book IV; e.g., ajātivāda 'theory of non-origination' discussed in III is discussed again in IV. But why? A point discussed and settled once in a chapter may, if necessary, be alluded to in a subsequent chapter, but why should it be discussed and settled again? Is it not useless? Why should the author of Book IV indulge in such a useless action? This leads one to think that Book IV is an independent work in which the author has incorporated certain things that are already dealt with by him elsewhere, while others are discussed again more elaborately or in a different way. The discussion of the ajātivāda is an instance on the point.

Thus we arrive at the conclusion that these four Books are four independent treatises and are put together in a volume under the title of the Āgamaśāstra.

#### § 4. The Text of the Agamasastra

We are now to discuss a few points regarding the text of the ĀŚ, as we have now in the extant editions and the MSS examined for them. Here arises a question: Is it that the text is a complete one? It seems to me that the answer cannot be given in the affirmative. It will at once occur to the mind of a reader that the first kārikā of Book I has found its place there quite abruptly. Without any reference to the three states, waking, dreaming and deep sleep as described in the

prose passages of the MāU this kārikā is not intelligible. It appears therefore that one or more kārikās here are missing. 2

It may be said that as in Book IV, 3 so here, too, at the beginning of Book I, a mangalācaraṇa is expected, but it is not found. Hence it appears that originally at least one kārikā was composed here for it, but subsequently somehow or other it was lost. This point of mangalācaraṇa cannot, however, be much insisted upon. For, in the time of the author of the Ā\$ this practice of mangalācaraṇa was not so much persisted in as in later days. The great \$a n k a r a, the author of the \$\overline{Sarīraka-bhāṣya}\$, does not follow it, so far as his undisputed works are concerned.\(^1\) So it may be that the author did not like it at the beginning of Book I, though he actually followed it in Book IV. Thus this point is not of much importance.

Let one read kārikās 5 and 6 and say if there is any connexion between them. Kārikā 6 seems to have come here all of a sudden. The commentator S is silent here on their mutual connexion. Does this not lead one

This fact should not, however, be taken as a rearon for supposing the priority of the MāU to the kārikās refuted elsewhere on strong grounds.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> According to also those who hold that the kārikās of G a u ḍ a p ā d a are written as an explanation (vyākhyāna) of the MāU, one might naturally expect at the beginning some words to that effect, but they are not found. In accordance with this theory also at least one kārikā is lost here.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The commentary on the Sānkhyakārikā may also be added here, but it is not quite certain that its author and the author of AS, though both of them are known by the same name, Gaudapāda, are identical.

<sup>4</sup> It is disputed that the beginning slokes of the commentary on the TU, which go by his name are actually written by him,

to think that a kārikā or kārikās are missing here? They might have been in existence in the time of the commentator, and possibly they were commented upon by him, but all this was lost afterwards.

Undoubtedly Om is one of the subject matters of Book I which consists of 29 kārikās, but until kārikā 19 there is no mention whatsoever of the word. This does not seem to be quite proper. And here is one thing more to be borne in mind; it is this that without a knowledge of the fact that Om can be analysed into a, u, and m this kārikā (19) can hardly be understood, so one expects here something like the prose passage 8 of the MāU.

With reference to some of the kārikās it appears to me that their original order has been somehow or other changed, so that their proper elucidation has been difficult. Let us take kārikā II. 33. I am afraid, it does not fit well here after kārikā II. 32. Its right place seems to be after II. 30. Similarly in Book IV kārikās 38, 39, 40 and 41 appear to be 40, 38, 41 and 39 respectively, as is discussed in a foot-note on p. 146.

As regards IV. 77, it seems to me that between its two lines at least two more lines are lost, as will be seen from the discussion on p. 184, to which the reader is referred.

This consideration coupled with that of the variants that are supported by S in his commentary, as I have discussed in their places, shows that the original text of the ĀŚ of G a u d a p ā d a underwent some serious changes at least by the time of S, if not ealier.

## § 5. Readings of the Text

We may now speak here a few words with regard to the readings of the ĀŚ. The collation of the MSS referred to above as well as of the different editions of the work has resulted in showing or suggesting true or better readings in many cases, which have mainly been discussed under the kārikās concerned, giving the grounds for the readings adopted. There are, however, other cases where I have not offered my reasons for selecting a particular reading, as they can easily be understood by the reader himself. Below will be found, for example, some notable readings that are chosen or suggested:

- 1. dve tu (I. 11d) for dvau tu.
- 2. samurlatvam na (II. 4<sup>d</sup>) for samurlatvena.
- 3. 'pi pratipadyate (II. 7<sup>d</sup>) for vipratipadyate. See IV. 32<sup>b</sup>.
  - 4. 'vyavasthitān (II. 13") for vyavasthitān.
  - 5. nānyabhāvena (II. 34°) for nātmabhāvena
  - 6. sa-yathā (III. 11d) for kham yathā.
- 7.  $yad\ a^{\circ}$  (IV. 12°) for  $yady\ a^{\circ}$ . As we have  $yadi\ in\ b$ , it cannot again be expected in a; nor can it, in that case, be construed properly. Besides, the reading  $yad\ a^{\circ}$  is actually found in  $V^{\varepsilon}$ .
- 8. 'nādiḥ (IV. 23°) for 'nādeḥ, and jātir(1) supported by PU¹ for hy ādir.
- 9. saṃsāro nopalabhyate (IV. 56<sup>d</sup>) supported by A<sup>1</sup> and IO for saṃsāraṃ na prapadyate.

For a detailed account see Appendix II, Variants, pp. 229-244.

- 10. svabhāvena (IV. 57a) for sadbhāvena.
- 11.  $samvity\bar{a}$  (IV.  $58^b$ ) supported by V<sup>a</sup> and S for jāyante.
  - 12. paratantro 'bhio (IV. 73°) for paratantrābhio.
  - 13. paratantro 'bhiº (IV. 74°) for paratantrābhiº.
- 14. dharmadhātūḥ svabhāvataḥ (IV. 81<sup>d</sup>) for dharmo dhātusva<sup>o</sup>.

## § 6. The Name of the Work

The present work popularly known as Māṇḍūkya-kārikā (or °kārikās) or Gauḍapādakārikā (or °kārikās) is traditionally called Āgamaśāstra. It is owing to this fact that the commentary on it by S is called Āgamaśāstra-vivaraṇa.¹ Sometimes it is named also Āgamagrantha or Upadeśagrantha as some of the colophons show (p. 244), occasionally both of these names are used together (loc. cit). It is also called or described as Māṇḍūkyavārttika,² or Māṇḍūkyopaniṣad-gauḍapāda-vyākhyāna, or Gauḍapādīyakārikā, or simply Gauḍa-pādīya after its author, as is shown by some MSS. Again, sometimes it is referred to as Māṇḍūkyaśākhā.³

Here I. 17 of our text is referred to. For other two names see § 1, note 8, p. xxxv.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See the Colophons, pp. 231, 234, 236, 244.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The word vārttika is not properly used here, as the present work has not the characteristics of a vārttika, for a vārttika is said to be a work which criticizes what is said, what is not said, and what is said wrongly in the original work, as says Rājaśekhara in his Kāvyamīmāṃsā, GOS, No. I, 1916, II. p. 5: uktānuktaduruktacintā vārttikam.

Sāyaṇa on TA, VII. 1 (p. 483); VII. 2 (p. 570): māyāmātram idam dvaitam advaitam paramārthataḥ ļ iti māndūkyaśākhāyām śrutivākyam udāhrtam !!

It may be noticed here that two MSS, D<sup>1</sup> and D<sup>2</sup>, describe the work as *Vedāntamūla* 'origin of the Vedānta' which is very significant.

Now let us discuss as to why this book is called \$\bar{A}gama\sistra\$. The word \$\bar{a}gama\$ among other things means 'a traditional doctrine' or 'anything handed down and fixed by tradition'; and \$\sistara\$ gives the sense in such cases as the present one, of 'a religious or authoritative treatise.' Thus the compound word, \$\bar{A}gama\sistara\$, means a \$\sistara\$ pertaining to \$\bar{a}gama\$, i.e., authoritative treatise which deals with or is based on a traditional doctrine or doctrines. That the \$\bar{A}gama\sistara\$ is in fact of such character is fully borne out throughout the book itself, as the following few lines will show.

Besides the general meaning 'to remember' the root  $\sqrt{smr}$  figuratively means also 'to hand down memoriter, declare,' and so its past participial form smrta is used in the sense of 'handed down memoriter, or declared, mentioned,' etc. Thus the sentence 'sāstre smrtam means 'it is handed down memoriter or declared in a scripture.' And though the subject of the sentence is not expressed in this or similar cases, it is easily understood, it being a teacher or teachers or a similar person or

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For agama see MV, pp. 268-9. For the Buddhist interpretation of the word śastra one may be referred to MVST, p. 4 from which the following is quoted here:

yac chāsti ca kleśaripūn aśeṣān santrāyate durgatito bhayāc ca | tac chāsanāt trāṇaguṇāc ca śāstram° ||

It is quoted also in MV, p. 3. For a description of sastras see Raja-sekhara, Op. cit., II. For the significance and importance of the word sastra (Tibetan bstan.bcos, Chinese lun) mark its use in Nagarjuna's fundamental work, Madhyamakasastra.

persons who may or may not have been mentioned before. Now with regard to our case the word *smṛta* is employed by our author not less than eleven times. This fact clearly shows that our author refers to or deals with some doctrine or doctrines handed down traditionally. This is clear also from his employment of the following phrases in the work:

1. satām iti viniścayaḥ (I. 6); 2. svapna āhur manīṣiṇaḥ (II. 2); 3. svapna āhuḥ prakāśitam (II. 3); 4. evam āhur manīṣiṇaḥ (II. 5); 5. dṛṣṭaṃ vedānteṣu vicakṣaṇaiḥ (II. 31); 6. iti tattvavido viduḥ (II. 34); 7. °munibhir vedapāragaiḥ | nirvikalpo hy ayaṃ dṛṣṭaḥ prapañcopaśamo 'dvayaḥ || (II. 35); 8. vādinaḥ kecid (II. 3); 9. vivadanto 'dvayā hy evam ajātiṃ khyāpayanti te (IV. 4); 10. khyāpyamānām ajātiṃ taiḥ (IV. 5); 11. jātim icchanti vādinaḥ (IV. 6).

#### § 7. The Author

We have already seen, as the great Sankara says in his commentary on the BS, I. 4. 14 and II. 1. 9, that the work was by an Ācārya 'teacher' to whom the tradition of the Vedānta was known. But the question

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> I. 1, 20, 26; II. 4. 7; III. 1; IV. 32, 46, 88, 90, 94.

<sup>6</sup> Besides, the tollowing words may be referred to here: 1. anya (I. 7);
2. apara (Il. 26); 3. āśramavid (II. 27); 4. kālacintaka (I. 8); 5. kālavid (II. 24); 6 guṇavid (II. 20); 7. cittavid (II. 25); 8. (dig-) vid (II. 24); 9. pādavid (II. 21); 10. prāṇavid (II. 20); 11. buddhivid (II. 25); 12. (bhavana-)vid (II. 24); 13. (bhūta-)vid (II. 20); 14. bhokṭṛvid (II. 22); (bhojya-)vid (II. 22); 15. manovid (II. 25); 16. mūrtavid (II. 23); 17. laya-) vid (II. 28); 18. lokavid (II. 21); 19. sūkṣmavid (II. 23); 20. sṛṣṭivid (II. 28); 20. sṭrtivid (II. 28).

<sup>1</sup> See supra, § 1, notes 5 and 6, p. xxxiv.

is: who is that Ācārya? That he is Gauḍa-pāda² is well-known traditionally and found in the colophons of each of the four Books in MSS of the original and its commentary. He is sometimes called Gauḍapādācārya, Gauḍācārya, or simply Gauḍa. From this we may think that his real name is Gauḍa, the words -pāda, -pada, -caraṇa, or -ācārya being added to it simply as honorific. That his actual name is Gauḍa is stated very clearly by Bālakṛṣṇānanda Sarasvatī (middle of the 17th century A.D.) in his SMV, p. 6, ll. 9-12.

Now the question arises: Is the word Gauḍa his personal name or does it simply signify that he belongs to a country called Gauḍa? In Sureśvara's NSi, IV. 44, there are two words, Gauḍas and Drāviḍas, which refer to Gauḍa pādācārya, the author of the present work and the great Śańkarācārya, the author of the Upadeśasāhasrī, respectively, according

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Sometimes we have Gaudapada (JM, 10) and Gaudacarana (SMV, p. 5, 1, 23), most probably for metrical exigency.

<sup>3</sup> S on SU, I. 8 (p. 30).

<sup>4</sup> PD, II. 23; Sāyaņa on TA, VII. 2 (p. 565).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> NSi, IV. 44.

<sup>6</sup> A Venkatasubbiah (IA, 1933, p. 193) is of the same opinion.

There is evidence to show that the country called Gaudadeśa was once regarded as the land between 82° and 88° longitude and 25° and 28° latitude along with the adjacent districts of North Bengal (Matsya P., XII. 30; Kūrma P., Part I, 20-9; Linga P., Part I, I. 65, 34; JASB, 1908, pp. 273 ff.) Recent researches show that the country is identical with North Pengal. See Haranch and ra Chakladar: Annals of the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Vol. III, Part I, pp. 43 ff.

to the commentator, J ñ ā n o t t a m a .8 It may be said that as Ś a n k a r a is referred to by a name related to his native country, Dravida (i.e., Kerala, the modern Malabar), and not by a personal name, so the case must have been the same with G a u d a p ā d a; in other words, he, too, must have been alluded to by a name connected with his country which is Gauda. Otherwise, why should S u r e ś v a r a mention him in a different way?

Walleser (op. cit., p. 3) is of opinion that by the two words of Sureśvara, Gaudas and Drāvidas, we are to understand two Vedantic schools. If we are to know by the word Drāvidas a school founded by Śańkara in Malabar (the representative work of which is here said to be the Upadeśasāhasrī), we must take also the Gaudas as a native school established in North India in the land of Gaudas, which might have already been much advanced in culture. It is, however, immaterial, to my mind, to discuss as to whether the words actually refer to the two

<sup>8</sup> It may be noticed here that in the second edition (Bombay Sanskrit Series, No. XXXVIII, 1906) of the NSi occurs the following line in J n a n o t t a m a's commentary on IV. 44: kevalanam api dravidatva-prasiddheh. Seeing this the editor. Colonel G. A. Jacob writes in his notes (p. 247): "Who are the kevalas referred to in the commentary?" The fact is that the word kevala is wrongly written, or read, or printed for Kerala, the ancient name of the country. The same mistake occurs also in the revised ecition (1926) of the book, p. 193.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Walleser thinks that the country might have been so named owing to much cultivation of sugar-cane (guḍa). Cf. the word puṇḍra for North Bengal, which also means 'sugar-cane' (of red variety).

representative teachers or to the two schools represented by them, both the interpretations being equally possible.

It may be pointed out here that merely the word Gauda cannot invariably refer to one who is an inhabitant of the Gaudadesa. One may not actually be an inhabitant of it, yet, may be regarded as a Gauda. Abhinanda, the author of the Yogavāsisthasāra or Laghuyogavāsistha, though a Kashmirian, is called Gauda. Similarly Brahmānanda, the wellknown author of the Laghucandrikā, though not born in Gaudadesa, has the epithet Gauda, probably as he was educated in Gaudadeśa, Bengal, being, as is said, a fellow student of Gadadhara Bhattacarya. One who has any connexion, past, present, or future, in respect of oneself or one's ancestors, with the Gaudadesa may be a Gauda. On this one may be referred to MD, I. 3. 23 with Sabarasvāmin's commentary in which it is said that a man who has set out for the city of Mathura is regarded as a Mathura; similarly one who lives in the city of Mathura, or one who has come out from the city of Mathura is also called a Mathura. 10

With regard to our author we should remember here the views of Bālakṛṣṇānanda Sarasvatī already once referred to. He writes (SMB, p. 6, ll. 9-12): There was in the country of Kuruksetra a river

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> mathurāyām abhiprasthito māthura iti, mathutāyām vasan mathurāyā nirgatas ca,

called Hirarāvatī. 11 On its banks there were some Gauda people, the pre-eminent of whom was our author, and as he was absorbed in deep meditation beginning from the *Dvāpara* age, his special name is not known to modern people and so he is celebrated by the general one. 12

Let us notice here the observations made by Walleser (op. cit., pp. 6 ff.). He thinks there was none named Gaudapāda who is believed to have been the author of the present work. By the word Gauda-pādas we are to understand the four Books (prakaraņas) of the work and Gaudapādīyakārikā is the name for the whole work, as found in MSS. This last title seems to be somewhat artificial and it can be guessed that the work was commonly known as Gaudapādī in the same way as the provincial expression Bhadracari for Bhadracaryā. In fact both the titles Gaudapādī and Āgamaśāstravivaraņa have been shown by C. F. Hall in one of his contributions.13 Walleser says further that the quotations from later works correspond to his opinion that no teacher known as Gaudapāda was the author of the book, but it

<sup>11</sup> It remains to be identified. It is doubtful if the name is correctly written by the scribe of the MS or read or edited accurately by the editors.

<sup>12</sup> gaudacaraṇāḥ kurukṣetradeśagata-hirarāvatī-nadītīrabhavagaudajātiśreṣṭhāḥ deśaviśeṣabhavajātināmnaiva prasiddhāḥ, dvāparayugam ārabhyaiva samādhiniṣṭhatvenādhunikajanair aparijūātaviśeṣābhidhānāḥ sāmānyanāmnaiva lokavikhyātāh.

<sup>13</sup> Such practice is still very common in the country; e.g., Vidyāsāgarī, a ṭīkā by Ānandapūrņa Vidyāsāgara on the Khaṇḍanakhaṇḍakhādya; Rāmabhadrī, a ṭīkā on the Nyāyakusumāñjalı by Rāmabhadra; so are Dinakarī, Rāmarudrī, etc. etc.

existed among the contemporary people as a fundamental work of a school and not as a production of a definite author. He shows from the Tibetan sources11 that though the work was known to the Buddhist authors as a Vedāntaśāstra in which the doctrines of the school are explained, nothing is known there of Gaudapada who is supposed to have composed it. Saii kara in his Sārīrakabhāsya quotes twice, as shown above. from the work referring to our author (or authors) as those to whom was known the tradition of the Vedanta (vedantarthasampradayavid or simply sampradayavid). commentator, Govindānanda in his Ratnaprabhā and Ānandagiri in his Nuāuanirnaua introduce the above opinion of Sankara as the 'approval of the old' (vrddhasammati, BS, I. 4. 14 and II. 1. 9). Sureśvara has quoted two kārikās (NSi, IV. 41, 42; our text I. 11 and 15 respectively) mentioning their author as Gaudas (gaudaih), 15 while he takes Sankara as the representative of the Dravida tradition. In the commentary on the NSi Iñānottara describes the quoted passages as gaudapādīya-vākya. We have already seen in the PD (II. 28) the Gauda teaching, but the commentator, Rāmakrsna, does not know

<sup>14</sup> That is, the Tibetan translations of Sāntirakṣita's Madhyamakā-lankārakārikā together with its commentary by Kamalaśīla, as well as of Bhāvaviveka's Madhyamakahıdayakārikā and its commentary Tarkajvālā by himself Vide infra.

<sup>15</sup> It is, however, not true that Suresvara never mentions the name Gaudapāda, for he uses it at least for once in his BBV, IV. 4.886 (p. 1866). In the same work he has also used the words gaudapādīya vacas (l. 4.389, p. 510) and gaudācārya (II. 1.386, p. 951).

the author, he describes the passage quoted as ācārya-16 sammati. Sadānanda quotes in his VeS, § 33, two kārikās, III. 44, 45, referring as tad uktam, and Nrsimha Sarasvatī, the commentator, does not name their author simply alluding to them as viddhasammati 'the opinion of the old.' Rāmatīrtha, another commentator, says that it is a contemporary opinion. Again, if we examine Kāśmīraka Yati, the author of the Advaitabrahmasiddhi (p. 277) we find no evidence that the Gaudapādakārikā was known to him as a work of a single author. Vijñānabhiksu has quoted kārikās (II. 32, III. 5, 26) from the work in his Sānkhyapravacanabhāsya, (I. 45, 47; 153: VI. 50). But there is nothing to show that Gaudapāda was taken to be their author. Walleser thus says that not a single passage 17 can be guoted from all these texts which can make us believe that Gaudapādī had Gaudapāda as its author. We are told that Sankara received instruction from Govinda who was a disciple of Gaudapāda with whom the former had a conversation and he had another conversation with Vyāsa himself. The same sort of contradiction is found also with regard to the residence of Govinda; one source gives it as the banks of the Narmada and the other the Himalayas. This sort of things does not give us a historical clue.

<sup>16</sup> Not vrddha-, as writes Walleser.

<sup>17</sup> Excepting, as he himself has pointed out, one passage from S's commentary on the SU, I. 8, where the following line occurs: tathā ca śukaśisyo gauḍapādācāryaḥ. But that the commentary is not by the great S is the view not only of Walleser but also of others including the present author.

Walleser thus finally observes that the whole tradition is fabulous, and with this the last of the arguments in favour of the authorship of Gaudapādī by a certain Gaudapāda vanishes. And as one could not explain the word Gaudapādī one imagined a fictitious Gaudapāda. Now he adds that for the history of Vedanta we can gather from the preceding discussion that in a time considerably before the activities of Sankara there existed a philosophical school in the country of Gauda and in the same district in which Buddhism flourished till the eighth century. This school for the first time put the traditions of the Vedas and Upanisads in the form of a śāstra, i.e., a school doctrine and embodied it in a collection of sayings (Spruchsummlung) consisting of the four pādas of the Gaudapādakārikā. Already in the time of San kara this text, the only older Vedānta text which has been preserved and perhaps the only one which was ever produced, enjoys high consideration quite independently of legendary traditions which connect Śańkara with Govinda and Śuka with Gaudapāda. The existence of the North Indian school at the beginning of the century preceding Śańkara seems well-established.

We are, however, to consider here the following without entering into a hair-splitting discussion. There is a text before us known as the  $\bar{A}gamaś\bar{a}stra$  or  $Gaudap\bar{a}dak\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$ , or passing under any other similar name; and of this text there must be an author. There may, however, be more than one author. The

work may represent the view of the predominant school of a particular people. But can we only for this reason think that it is the production of the whole people of the land? When a very prominent man of a country pronounces something in public, it may be regarded as the opinion of the country itself, and not as his personal view, though he may not consult the people of the country before doing so. In the same way, it appears to me, that the present work is by one person and yet, it represents the views of the entire country to which he belonged. But who is that person? He is one Gauda. When there is no contradiction nor any incongruity, why should we not accept the tradition, as far as possible? Thus, as we have already seen, the actual name of the author is Gauda, or with the honorific word -pāda or ācārua added to it Gaudapāda, or Gaudācārva.

Much could be known of any author from the old records on which naturally one inclines to depend for ascertaining the truth. But they are so fantastic and self contradictory in the present case that it is almost impossible to find out the truth from them.<sup>18</sup> These

<sup>18</sup> On their unreliability observes S. K. Pelvalkar in his Vedānta Philosophy, Poona, 1929, pp. 231-232: "while all the other so-called Prācīna, Bṛhat, or Keralīya Śaṅkaravijayas are prejuc'iced in favour of one or the other Pontifical See, and so contain almost shameless tampering of traditions and documents which is provable to the hilt even by the accusations on the score of falsification of records which each party finds it possible to bring against the other. When such is the case of the avowed followers of the School, it need hardly be wondered at if the pronounced opponents belonging to the Mādhva and the Rāmānujīya Schools have gone one better, and indulged in a merciless throwing of mud in the hope that some of it might stick,"

records are the accounts of the life of the great Sankara and those who were connected with him in some way or other. Readers desirous of knowing these legendary accounts of Gaudapāda are referred to those works themselves which are to be used very cautiously.

#### § 8. The Date of Gaudapāda

Now let us discuss the date of our author, and in doing so we shall begin from one of the old accounts of the school already referred to, viz., JM, in which Gaudapāda is mentioned as having some connexion with a few Greeks. It is said there (10)¹ that the feet of Gaudapāda were adored by Ayārcya, and he was the preceptor of such Niṣāka mystics as Apalūnya. Here Ātmabodhendra, the commentator, adds something on the authority of such works as Gaudapādollāsa of Harimiśra, and Patañjalivijaya (=°carita? of Rāmabhadra Dīkṣita). He writes that when Gaudapāda on a peak of the Himālayas was seeking after the truth of the self under the guidance

<sup>19</sup> Gopinath Kavirāj singles out the following books in his learned Introduction (in Hindī) to the Brahmasūtras published from the Acyuta Press, Benares, 1936, pp. 26 ff: (1) Sankaradigvijaya of Mādhavācārya (not of Vidyāranya), (2) Sankaravijaya of Ānandagiri, (3) Sankarabhyudaya of Rājacūdāmani, (4) Sankaravijaya of Cidvilāsa, (5) Sankaravijaya of Sadānanda, (6) Punyaślokamañjarī of Sarvajāa Sadāśivabodha, (7) Punyaślokamañjarī-pariśiṣṭa of Ātmabodha. (8) Gururatnamālā of Sadāśivabrahmendra. Its ṣīkā, Suṣumā, by Ātmabodhendra is a goodone.

abhiyuñjad-ayārcya-pūjyarādān apalūnyādinisākasiddhanetin | atha gaudapadān phanīfabhāsya-piathamācāryakapanditān prapadye |

of Śuka,<sup>2</sup> it was through his influence that the wrong Buddhistic views (śauddhodani-kadadhvanām) of the persons headed by Ayārcya who was being attended by such Yogins belonging to the Western border of the country as Apalūnya and Damīśadyaparāntyayogibhiś ca), as well as by Prāvṛti, the Śākya chief of Taxila (takśaśilādhīśa-śākyaprāvṛti-pramukhaiḥ), were made to disappear.

If here one turns over the pages of The Indian Travels of Apollonius of Tyana by Osmond de Beauvoir Priaulx, JRAS, 1860, pp. 70 ff., one will easily see that Apalūnya in the Sanskrit text is no other than the Pythagorian philosopher Apollonius of Tyana, who flourished in the first century A.D. He travelled to India and came to the court of Phraotes who was the same as Prāvṛti in the Sanskrit text, the king of Taxila. And Damīśa of our text is indentical with Damis,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> In connection with G a u d a p ā d a 's tapasyā in the Himālayas the following story may be related here from Nārāyaṇa's tīkā on MāU: The four parts of the MāU of the recension of the RV (yet, note that the Upaniṣad is said to belong to the AV) were explained by G a u d a p ā d a by his four Books (prakaraṇas). He was a disciple of S u k a and the grand preceptor of S. He flourished at the end of the age called Dvāpara. At the hermitage of Badarikā by his devotion he propitiated Nārāyaṇa and having obtained a boon from him he entered into a cave of a mountain, so that he would not look at the face of any one born in the age of Kali. In this state he was approached by S and requested to come out from the cave, but he did not comply with the request. Yet, having written the four Books of his work on the leaves of a Banyan tree with red chalk he gave them to S. Report of Sanskrit Manuscripts in Southern India by E. Hultzsch, No. III, p. 133. But there is no end of such legends on which one can hardly rely.

the fellow traveller and friend of Apollonius. The last person in our text, Ayārcya, is the same and one with larchas (probably a corruption from Rac'hyas, op. cit., p. 83, note), a Greek king.<sup>8</sup>

All this looks well, but do you gain anything from it about the date in question? The Greek account simply relates the travel of Apollonius, being completely silent about Gaudapāda. There is no doubt that some names of both the accounts are identical, but it does not follow from it that the persons having the same names are also identical. Supposing that the account is true it will be for a further creation of confusion in settling the date even of the great S, into which we do not enter here as useless.

Hence without having recourse to such legendary records for the determination of the date of our teacher

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Perhaps it is M. Hiriyanna (1HQ, 1926, pp. 415-416) who has first made the identification. See also Gopinath Kaviraj, op. cit., pp. 22-23.

<sup>4</sup> How far this account is true it is not easy to say, Priaulx, the author of the paper observes (Op. cit., p. 104): "of Damis's geography, I can only say that it reminds me of a fairy tale.... Who shall explain these discrepancies, account for these mistakes and fix localities thus vaguely described?" "Reviewing the whole work of Philostratus (i.e., the original author of the life of Apollonius) it seems to me that Apollonius certainly pretended to have travelled through and made some stay in India, but that very possibly he did not visit it, our Damis never accompanied him; but if we may judge from cinnamon and pepper-trees... fabricated this journal perhaps from books written upon India, and tales current about India, which he easily collected at the great mart for Indian commodities, and resort for Indian merchants—Alexandria."

we should take a safer course by which at least the upper and lower limits of his time can be ascertained.

I think we have no reason for discarding who Walleser has said in this respect. So far three Buddhist writers are known to us, who have actuall quoted Gaudapāda, viz., Bhāvavivek (cir. 500-550 A.D.), 5 Santiraksita (705-762 A.D. and his disciple Kamalasīla. Bhāvavivek is the author of the Madhyamakahrdayakārikā as we as of its commentary Tarkajvālā, the full title bein Madhyamakahrdayavrtti Tarkajvālā. In chapter VIII o his work Bhāvaviveka reviews the system of the Vedantins as he does in other chapters the system of Sānkhya, Vaišesika and Mīmāmsā In doing so Bhavaviveka in his TJ, VIII ha quoted passages from such texts as ChU, SU and MuU Besides, there are some other passages quoted, four of them (10-13) being very important in the preser connexion. While the first three have the close relationship with three kārikās of our text the last (i.e. TJ, VIII. 13) is entirely identical with III. 5 of ou

<sup>5</sup> Or Bhavya, as he is sometimes called, or Bhavyavive kas suggested from the Tibetan sources (legs.ldan.hbyed). Bhāvavive kwas the founder of the Prāsangika school of Nāgārjuna's Mādhyami system. He is much criticised by Candrakīrtti in his MV, Bhāvavive ka's Prajñāpradīpašāstra (Nanjio, No. 1185) was translatinto Chinese by Prabhākara Mitra in 630-632 A.D. He was junior contemporary of Dharmapāla (Th. Watterr: On Yu. Chwang's Travels in India, II. p. 222) who lived in the 5th century A. (Winternitz: History of Indian Literature, Eng. Tr., 1933, Vol. p. 362). Thus it can be said that the date of Bhāvavive ka is 500 A.D. or a few years after it.

text. There is, therefore, not an iota of doubt here that the GK was known to Bhāvaviveka. With reference to the other three kārikās cited by Bhāvaviveka, which are not identified in the GK, but have the closest relationship, we have to seek after another source.

As regards Śāntirakṣita he is the author among others of the Madhyamakālankarakārikā as well as of its commentary called Madhyamakālankāravṛtti. Besides, his disciple Kamalaśīla has written a Pañjikā on the former work just as on the Tattvasaṃgraha. Śāntarakṣita in his MAK, 93, discusses the views of the Aupaniṣadas (lit. Aupaniṣadānusārins, Tib. gsan.ba.paḥi. rjes.su.ḥbran.ba.dag), and in doing so he cites there not less than ten kārikās from our text which is referred to by Kamalaśīla in his Pañjikā as an Upaniṣat śāstra.

Now as we have seen above we cannot reasonably deny the existence of the GK before Bhāvaviveka who has actually quoted it. Thus one may ascertain that the time of Gaudapāda is cir. 500 A.D.

The following consideration, too, leads us to the same decision. Gaudapāda has quoted almost fully, partially or substantially from works of some

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Generally in Buddhist texts we come across similar words, as Aupaniṣadika (TSP, Sl. 328), and Upaniṣad-vādin (BAP, pp. 455, 465), and not Vedāntavādin or Vaidāntika.

<sup>7</sup> It may be noted that though Sāntirakṣita has quoted here so many kārikās from GK he has not done so at all in TS (Sls. 328-335) either from this or any other work. For the kārikās quoted in Tibetan works see our text II. 3, 4, 5, 6, 18, 19, 20; III. 4, 5, 6, 8.

celebrated Buddhist teachers who flourished between 200 A.D. and 400 A.D. For instance, see our text, 1V.  $22^{a-b}$ :

svato va parato vapi na kincid vastu jayate | And read here Nagarjuna's (200 A.D.) MK, XXI. 13<sup>a-b</sup>:

na svato jāyate bhāvah parato naiva jāyate | See our text, pp. 105 ff. and 127 ff. Again, we read in our ĀŚ, 7<sup>c-d</sup> and 29<sup>c-d</sup>:

prakrter anyathābhavo na kathañcid bhaviṣyati  $\parallel$  And in MK, XV.  $8^{cd}$  we have :

prakṛter anyathābhāvo nahi jātūpapadyate || The following line occurs in ĀŚ, IV. 4<sup>b</sup>:

abhūtam naiva jāyate |

And let us cite here the following from the CS, 373° of Nāgārjuna's disciple Āryadeva who probably lived, in the words of Winternitz (A History of Indian Literature, Eng. Tr., 1933, Vol. II, p. 350), "at about the turning point of the second and third century A.D.":

nābhūto nāma jāyate |

See our text III. 44 (pp. 77-78):

laye sambodhayec cittam viksiptam samayet punah | sakasāyam vijānīyāc chamaprāptam na cālayet ||

With this read the following from MAS, XIV. 9<sup>cd</sup>—10<sup>a-b</sup> of Maitreyanātha or Asanga (400 A.D.):

līnam cittasya gṛḥṇīyad uddhatam samayet punaḥ | samaprāptam upekṣeta tasminn ālambane punaḥ ||

Thus Gaudapāda quoting the above teachers can in no way be placed before them, in other words he cannot be assigned a date before 400 A.D.

Here we are to consider another kārikā of our author, i.e., IV. 13 which runs thus (see pp. 114-115):

jātāc ca jāyamānasya na-vyavasthā prasajyate [ Compare this with the following line quoted in MV, p. 13 from the AKV:

utpannasya punar utpattau kalpyamanayam anavasthaprasangah.

Now this work, AKV, is by Yasomitra. Before he wrote his own commentary on the AK of Vasubandhu (400 A.D.) there were at least three commentaries, two of them being written by Guṇamati (425 A.D.) and Vasumitra, as he himself says in the introductory slokas of his work. This shows that Yasomitra lived in the 5th century A.D. And so, if Gaudapāda's kārika (i.e., IV. 13) is in fact based on the above line of the AKV his date naturālly falls in the 5th century A.D.

Certainly this will militate against the traditional time of Sankara or the succession of teachers and disciples of his school. But how far the accounts of this succession can be relied upon is a question which has not yet been settled finally or satisfactorily. Are not the traditional succession lists kept in different Mathas unscrupulously manipulated? Under these circumstances we have no course left to us other than the evidences of

quotations and cross-references in early and reliable texts.8

Let us discuss the question from a different point of view. There is a work Paramārthasāra attributed to Sesa who is apparently the mythical Sesa, as he his referred to in the work itself as ādhāra (8), i.e., jagad-ādhāra (87). From this some take him as Patañjali, the less mythical Sesa, the author of the Mahābhāṣya on Pāṇini.

It is also called  $\bar{A}ry\bar{a}pa\tilde{n}c\bar{a}\tilde{s}iti$  owing to the fact that it is composed in eighty-five stanzas in the  $\bar{A}ry\bar{a}$  metre, though in fact there are eighty-seven stanzas.<sup>10</sup>

- 8 Our old traditions are so divergent that according to them as well as the modern researches we shall have to place Sankara some time between the 6th century B.C. and the 9th century A.D., viz., 6th century B.C., 4th century B.C., 1st century B.C., 4th century A.D., 6th century A.D., and the 9th century (788-820) A.D. The last date is now accepted by many a scholar. See Gopinath Kaviraj, op. cit., pp. 23 ff; Belvalkar, op. cit., pp. 209 ff.
  - <sup>9</sup> There are so far at least five editions of this book, the latest and critical one being by S. S. Suryanarayana Sastri (Transliterated Text, English Translation and Notes), Karnataka Publishing House, Bombay, 1941.
  - lt may be that the first two stanzas which are not in \$\overline{A}ry\vec{a}\$, but \$Upaj\vec{a}ti\$, were added later on. But, if it is so, as regards the first of them, it was added long before 'Abhinavagupta who has adopted it just at the beginning of his PS\vec{2}\$, I. The last stanza (87: ved\vec{a}nta\vec{a}\vec{o}\) does not also appear to constitute the original, being added by a second hand, as is suggested by Suryanarayana Sastri, op. cit., p. 40, note. Mark here the employment of the perfect tense, in the word babandha. The original number, 85, can however, be obtained by reckoning an additional stanza between 18 and 19 given from a MS in a foot-note in the Trivandrum edition (PS) being fully supported by PS\vec{2}\$, 9 (and not 6 as in PS\vec{3}\$).

It is a Vedāntic work. 11 Its excellence and imporance can be understood by the simple fact that A b h i n a v a g u p t a (in the end of the tenth and the beginning of the eleventh century A.D.), the great teacher of the *Pratyabhijñā* school and Poetics, adapted it, 12 though retaining the original title, for writing a manual of the *Pratyabhijñā* school, by some omissions, additions, alterations and improvements. 13 That it is an adaptation of the first work is known from the statement of A b h i n a v a g u p t a himself. 14

In this work of Sesa there are some passages, or words, or thoughts that supply certain points of resemblance to those of our AS. In order to see if this fact can throw any light on the question of the time of Gaudapāda we should like to discuss it in the following few lines.

- S. S. Suryanarayana Sastri (op. cit., p. viii) has noticed some of these points of resemblance 15
- The last stanza (87) of it says that it was composed by its author having ooked through the entire Vedānta-šāstra.
- <sup>12</sup> V. V. Sovani: JRAS, 1912, pp. 257 ff; K. C. Pandey: Abhinavagupta, 1935, pp. 57 ff; S. S. Suryanarayana Sastri: NIA, Vol. I, pp. 37 ff.
- 13 For instance compare PS1, 35 and 36 with PS2, 36 and 37 respectively. Abhinavagupta's work contains 105 kārikās, though he himself states that it has 100 kārikās. On this see K.C. Pandey, op. cit., p. 56.
- <sup>14</sup> See PS<sup>2</sup>, 1 and 2. I ye ng a r's observation (JRAS, 1910, p. 1338) does not appear to be reasonable.
- 16 For easy reference I write below the kārikās of PSI mentioning the numbers of the corresponding kārikās of the GK:
  - (a) prāṇādyanantabhedair ātmānam saṃvitatya jālam iva | saṃharati vāsudevaḥ svavibhūtyākrīḍamāna iva || PS¹, 30.

and writes (p. ix) after discussing them as follows: "It seems plausible that Gauḍapāda was drawing on some earlier sources, agreeing in part, while rejecting in part, and that the rejection was not consistent or thorough. Such a hypothesis may well consider the Paramārthasāra the original drawn upon." There is not the least doubt that G a u ḍ a p ā d a has drawn much upon earlier works, as it is perfectly clear throughout his book, 16 but can Ś e ṣ a 's PS¹ be included in them, though it may appear to be so?

In order to avoid prolixity I propose to discuss only two points raised by Suryanarayana Sastri

- (b) tribhir eva viśvataijasaprājāais tair ādimadhyanidhanākhyaiḥ | jāgratsvapnasuṣuptair bhramabhutaiś chāditam turyam | PS¹, 31.
  cf. GK, I. 1-5; MāU, 3-7 (pp. 223-234).
- (c) mohayatīvātmānaṃ svamāyayā dvaitarūpayā devaḥ |
  upalabhate svayam evaṃ guhāgataṃ puruṣam ātmānam ∥ PS¹, 32.
  cf. GK, II. 12.
- (d) jaladharadhūmodgatibhir malinikriyate yathā na gaganatalam | tadvat prakṛtivikārair aparāmṛṣṭaḥ parah puruṣaḥ || PS¹, 35.

  cf. GK, III. 8.
- (e) ekasminn api ca ghaṭe dhūmādimalāvṛte śeṣāḥ |
  na bhavanti malopetā yadvaj jīvo 'pi tadvad iha || PS¹, 36.

  cf. GK, III. 5.
- (f) himaphenabudbudā iva jalasya dhūmo yathā vahneḥ | tadvat svabhāvabhūtā māyaisā kathitā visņoḥ | PS¹, 53 . ct. GK. I. 9
- cf. GK, I. 9.

  (g) yad yat siddhāntāgamatarkesu prabruvanti rāgāndhāḥ \
  anumodāmas tat tat teśām sarvātmavādadhiyā || PS¹, 65.

cJ. GK, IV. 5.

(h) utpattināśavarjitam evam paramārtham upalabhya kṛtakṛtyaḥ saphalajanmā sarvagatis tiṣṭhati yathesṭam PS1, 79.
cf. GK, III. 32.

<sup>16</sup> For this the reader is referred to my Annotation of the AS, and the notes added thereto.

in the hope that this may decide the case. He writes: "Both are concerned with the three forms—Viśva, Taijasa and Prājña—as veiling the fourth which is the real." This refers, as he says, to PS¹, 31 and GK, I. 1 and 11.

The most important thing to be pointed out here first is that between the two texts, AS and PS', the latter is certainly a later development, as a perusal of the texts will show. Let us, however, make an attempt to understand PS1, 31 as it is before us without taking any help either from the commentator or from Abhinavagupta.18 The word jagrat-svapna-susupla is an adjective of viśvataijasaprājāa. But what is to be understood from the abrupt statement that Viśva, Taijasa and Prājña are iāgral, svapna and susupta respectively? What are these three, Viśva, Taijasa and Prāiña? How can one know them? How is one to understand that there is only one and the same who is regarded as three (i.e., Viśva, etc.) owing to three different stages (i.e., jagral, etc.)? How is it that turya undoubtedly referring to Vāsudeva in the preceeding kārikā (30) is put in the neuter gender,

<sup>17</sup> Is the last part of this statement exactly so? Do chādīta in PS1, 31 (=āvṛta in P², 34) and -baddha in kūryakāraṇabaddha and kāraṇabaddha in GK, I. 11 convey the same idea? We are to consider here GK, I. 15 and NSi (IV. 41, 42) where these two kātikās of G a u ḍ a p ā d a are quoted.

He has here the following two kārikās (PS<sup>2</sup>, 34 and 35): sṛṣṭisthitisaṃhārā jāgratsvapnau suṣuptam iti tasmin | bhānti turīye dhāmani tathāpi tair āvṛtam bhāti !!

<sup>(</sup>In the first half of this kārikā in  $PS^3$  quoted in fcot-note 2- svapnam is to be read as -svapnau.)

jāgrad višvam bhedāt svapnas tejah prakāšamāhātmyāt | prājāah suptāvasthā jāŭnagbanatvāt tatah peram turyam ||

while the latter word is in the masculine? 19 Moreover, what is the significance of taih in the first half? If it is not superfluous, what is it that it refers to? How far are we justified with the commentator in taking the word with chādita in the second half? Again, why is it that eva should be used in the first half after tribhir? All this taken together shows, as far as I can judge, that Sesa's work presupposes that of Gaudapāda, and not vice versa. Sesa had before him AS, I. 1-5 (as well as MaU, 3-7) upon which he has drawn adding something (ādimadhyanidhana) more quite independently as he has done throughout his book. While in AS there are five kārikās, \$ e s a has only one, and even in it he has made some addition. This on one hand and the metrical exigency on the other did not allow him, as seems to me, to express his ideas adequately with the result that there occurred some anomalies. Comparing PS1 and PS2 with the GK here it appears to me that as Sesa could not express himself adequately and consequently his kārikā became obscure Abhinavagupta added here one kārikā more, as has already been pointed out, explaining all that was absolutely necessary for its proper elucidiation.

Now, what is the source or sources of Abhinava's interpretation here (kārikās 34, 35), without which we cannot understand the kārikā of Śeṣa? Certainly it was not only Gaudapāda, for such things as

<sup>19</sup> Abhinava is quite justified in putting turya in the neuter gender as he has before it (kārikā 34) dhāman, neuter, which is referred to by the former word and we can think that he got it from GK, I. 5, 22,

sṛṣṭisthitisaṃhāra cannot be known from his work. One is therefore inclined to say with some amount of certainty that it was partly the work of Sesa, and partly the tradition connected with him, though under the present state of our knowledge we do not know if this tradition is recorded anywhere Nevertheless, we have to accept its existence, as we cannot explain the difficulties without it. The question arises here as to how Abhinava came to know that tradition. Does it not persuade onc to think that the distance of time between Sesa and A b h i n a v a is not as wide as it is supposed to have been? What is there against thinking that PS1 and PS2 belonged to the same period, though the former must have evidently been a little earlier? In this case the question of the interpretation of the present kārikā of Sesa given by Abhinava can very satisfactorily be explained. What is there that can be offered for pushing back the date of PS1 to a period before GK?

Again, with reference to the creation of the world  $\S$  e  $\S$  a in his work which deals with the Vedānta has effected a synthesis of the Sānkhya and the Vedānta systems by the introduction of the creation from Upendra (=Viṣṇu = Vāsudeva = Hari = Nārāyaṇa-Paramātman = Brahman) through prakṛti with the gradual evolution from it of buddhi (=mahat), etc. In the process of the creation he has accommodated also the theory of aṇḍa 'cosmic germ,' found, as for instance, in the Manusaṃhitā, I. 8 ff. and the Viṣṇu Purāṇa, I. 2. 58 ff. Here we are to note what K u l l ū k a observes on Manusaṃhitā, I. 8:

abhidhyānapūrvikām sṛṣṭim vadato manoḥ prakṛtir acetanā 'svatantrā pariṇamata ity ayam pakṣo na sammataḥ. kintu tridaṇḍivedāntasiddhānta evābhimataḥ pratibhāti.

It is further elucidated by him in another place (1.15):

nanv abhidhyānapūrvakasṛṣṭyabhidhānād vedāntasiddhānta eva manor abhimata iti prāg uktaṃ, tan na saṅgacchate. idānīṃ mahadādikrameṇa sṛṣṭyabhidhānād vedāntadarśanena ca paramātmana evākāśādikrameṇa sṛṣṭir uktā. ucyate. prakṛtito mahadādikrameṇa sṛṣṭir iti bhagavadbhāskarīyadarśane 'py upapadyata iti tadvido vadanti. 20

Now Bhāskara is one of the post-Sankara commentators of the BS. Undoubtedly he was in the ninth century A.D. being criticised by Vācaspati Miśra (841 A.D.) in his Bhāmatī (BS, III. 3. 29). Sesa seems therefore to have been well acquainted with the Vedantic system maintained by Bhāskara and has then combined his theory with that of Manu and others according to whom in the process of ceation there intervenes the theory of anda.

I do not therefore think that I can concur with Suryanarayana Sastri in suggesting that "the *Paramārthasāra* is the original drawn upon." (p. ix).

See Bhāskara's commentary on the BS (Chaukhamba Sanskrit Series, 1914), II. 1. 26: tataś ca brahmaṇah pariṇāmānupapatteḥ pradhānam eṣṭavyam iti tātparyārthaḥ. Udayana observes in his Nyāyakusumāñjali, p. 332: brahmapariṇater iti bhaskaragotre yujyate.

In passing we are to take up another question in this connexion. B. L. Atreya having noticed "much common between Kārikās (i.e., GK) and Yogavāsiṣṭha not only in thought, but also in language" 21 concludes that the latter is prior on the following three grounds: (1) The kärikas do not form "an independent treatise on the Advaita Philosophy," being "a sort of commentary on the Mandakya Upanisad." (2) "On the other hand, the philosopher Vasistha claims to have received his doctrines directly from the cosmic mind (Brahmā) and to have realised their truth in his own experience. The philosophy of Vasistha includes almost all the views held by Gaudapāda." And (3) "Gaudapāda-kārikās represent a later phase of the Advaita philosophy, when it tended to become critical, hostile and polemical towards other contemporary schools of thought, whereas Yogavāsistha represents the earlier phase."

As the space at my disposal does not allow me here to enter into a detailed discussion I desire simply to make a few observations as briefly as I can. I do not see that I can follow the above arguments. For, supposing that the GK is a sort of commentary and V as i s t h a received his doctrines directly from Brahmā, are we in any way justified in thinking that the YV is prior to the GK? Does it follow from that? As regards the third argument of A t r e y a he thinks that the Advaita philosophy as represented in the GK is of a later phase, because it is "critical,

<sup>21</sup> Yogavāsiṣṭha and its Philosophy, 1932, pp. 14-15.

hostile and polemical towards other" systems. But may one ask here: Is there anything in the GK that may be regarded as "critical, hostile and polemical?" If so, what and where is it so? On the contrary, one may find there (GK, III. 17; IV. 3-6) clear non-hostility (avirodha), and there is no instance of anything that is critical and polemical. If, however, the mention of different views in the GK is meant thereby, the case is the same also with the YV.<sup>22</sup>

It is not always safe to conclude the priority or posteriority of one of two works simply seeing the same or similar passage, or thought, occurring in both of them. For instance, we read the following in the GK, II. 6 23 and IV. 31:

ādāv ante ca yan nāsti vartamāne pi tat tathā |

The same line occurs also in the YV, IV. 45. 45 and a similar one in III. 11. 13, as quoted in our text, p. 142, note 3. Now, apart from the question of the date of the GK, can we determine with any amount of certainty the priority or posteriority of one. of the two works unless we take into consideration the other factors that are connected herewith? One may be referred here to the present Annotation on GK, IV. 31, and it will be found that the same thought only in slightly different words is expressed in such works as MK and ĀS, which are undisputably far earlier than YV. Now, if we see that G a u d a p ā d a has abundantly drawn upon

For instance, see III. 62. 10-11; 84. 22-27 (vivadante hy asambuddhāh svavikalpavijīmbhitaih).

<sup>23</sup> Atreya has noticed it.

such earlier works can we ever think in this or similar cases that he has borrowed from YV, unless there is any strong ground for doing so? When there are two texts containing the same thing, one earlier and the other later, one may quote from either of them; but to decide definitely as to from which one it is actually done one should discuss carefully.

Another instance of what is common to both GK and YV, as noted by Atreya, is the non-difference between the states of wakefulness and dream (iagrat and susupta), as found in GK, II. 5 and YV, IV. 9. 11 ff. Here, too, when we see that the first half of the GK clearly refers to the BU, IV. 3-14 (see p. 19), upon which, just as upon other Upanisads, Gaudapāda draws so much, as is evident from the work itself.21 how can we think that YV is here the source of GK? On the contrary, a careful perusal of YV will at once show that in his answer to the question put to him by Rama about the difference between wakefulness and dream Vasistha has written a number of ślokas (YV, IV. 19.9 ff), and attempted thereby only to explain what is very briefly stated in GK. Does this fact point to the priority or posteriority of YV to GK 225

<sup>24</sup> See next section.

<sup>25</sup> According to Atreya the date of YV is the sixth century A.D. But his arguments do not appear to me to be strong or convincing. It may be noted here in this connection that there are two things that may specially be mentioned in Svāmī Bhūmānanda's paper entitled Priority of the Yogavāsistha to Sańkarācārya: (1) Sańkara quotes (BS, III. 4. 50) the Vasiṣṭhadharmaśāstra (ed. A. A. Führer, Bombay, 1883), X.18;

## § 10. The Works of Gaudapāda

With regard to the works ascribed to Gaudap ā d a the only one that can be accepted with certainty as written by him is the AS. The authorship of a few other books is ascribed to him. The most important of them is a bhāsya on the Sānkhyakārikā of Iśvarakrsna. There is a bhāsya under his name also on the Uttaragītā. But there is no strong ground for holding that they are actually by Gaudapāda, the author of the AS, nor is there anything of the nature that can decide the case otherwise, though I incline to subscribe to the view that they are not by Gaudapāda. A commentary, too, on the NUTU is attributed to him. There are three other works which pass under the name of Gaudapāda as their author. A commentary on the Durgāsaptasatī is one of them. This is referred to by the great Tantric teacher Bhāskararāya in his commentary on the same

kavacam bījam ādisṭam argalā śaktir iṣyate | kīlakam kīlakam prāhuḥ saptaśatyām mahāmanoḥ || iti gaudapādadhrtavacanāt.

And again: yady api vedāntamūrdhanyair gaudapādācāryaih sarvam idam nirvišesacitpratipādakasāstraparatvena vyākhyātam.°

and (2) mentions the name of Vasiṣṭha in his commentary on the BG, XIII. 4. But the question whether these two Vasiṣṭhas, the Vasiṣṭha of YV as well as the Vasiṣṭha in the list of the teachers of the Saṅkara school are identical, remains to be settled, though according to some of the authors of the ṭīkās on BG, the Vasiṣṭha referred to by Saṅkara is the author of YV.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> There is a manuscript, No. 1405, of this work in the Grantha character in the Visvabharati Library, Santiniketan. The following occurs there on folio 24α:

work. The other two are Tantric treatises, viz., Subhagodaya and Śrīvidyāratnasūtra.

Here arises a question: Can we think that there are two Gaudapadas, one Vedantic and the other Tantric, being the authors of works on the Vedanta and Tantricism respectively? In the Śrīvidyārņava which is a Tantric work by Pragalbhācārya, Śańkarācārya is said to have been the founder of a Tantric school. There is in this work also a list of the succession of his teachers and disciples. But it seems impossible to reconcile this list with the traditional one of the Advaita Vedanta school. So the list in the Srīvidyārnava hardly helps us in this matter. Nevertheless, we may simply note in the list given here that there are two Gaudapādas, one of them being mentioned as Gauda (No. 55) and the other Gaudapādaka (No. 65)," who is, in fact, the same as Gaudapāda, the suffix -ka being evidently on account of the metrical exigency. On this the reader may form his own judgment.

## § 11. The Sources

The sources of the Agamaśāstra, which one naturally desires to know, roughly fall into three classes, viz.,

It is said that there i. a bhāṣya on it by Sañkara.

In the verse containing the word as quoted by Rājendranātha Ghoṣa in his Advaitavāda (in Bengali), p. 227, the actual reading is Gaudapādakaḥ. But Gopinath Kaviraj (op. cit., p. 53), who has not quoted the verse, reads only Gaudapāda leaving out the suffix -ka which seems to be right.

(1) Vedic texts: Vedas and Upanisads, (2) Schools or Teachers, and (3) Buddhist works.

With regard to class (1), these are mostly Upanisads. Vedas being quoted in not more than two cases (III. 24b) and c). It is, however, to be noted in this connexion that when there is a passage which occurs both in a Veda and in an Upanisad it is very difficult to ascertain as to whether the reference is actually to the former or to the latter. For instance, here in III. 24b we have indro māyābhir iti. This is found in RV, VI. 47. 18 as well as in BU, II. 5. 19. How can we, in this case, ascertain that the reference is in fact to the one and not to the other? The case is exactly the same with the second instance III. 24 c) of a quotation from a Veda. Similarly with regard to II. 24 we know much of kāla 'time' from the AV, XIX. 53, 54 and the SU, I. 2, IV. 1. But here it is very difficult to conclude whether the reference is actually to the former or to the latter, or to the both of them. Again, the Kālavids 'knowers of time' are, as says Ā n a n d a g i r i, astronomers, and it is not impossible that our author might have alluded to some work of them, or simply to the view held by them or to their school.

In the course of the present Annotation many references to different Upanişads have been inserted in support of a point or points in our text, but which of them, if any, is in fact meant by the author in any particular case we cannot say definitely. It may be that in some cases the Upanişadic authority, really meant by the author, is different from what the present

annotator has quoted. For instance, with regard to pāda (II. 21) which is capable of being interpreted differently, various references are given in the Annotation, or still other references may be shown. But it is not easy to ascertain the particular reference or references the author himself intended. Nevertheless, it is certain that the author had in his mind any one or more of these or similar passages when he was writing his book.

Among the references in the Annotation the names of the Bhagavadgītā (XIII. 22 in II. 22 of our text) and the Brahmasūtra (II. 3. 19-32 in II. 23 of our text) will be found. But we cannot be sure that these two works are actually drawn upon by our author, though they may elucidate the texts to some extent.

Similarly for the explanation of our text there will be found some references in the Annotation to such minor Upaniṣads (for instance, in II. 32) as Avadhūta Up., 8; Āśrama°, 4; Ātma°, 31; Jābāla°, 6; Tripurātāpanī°, V. 10; Brahmabindu°, 10. But whether these minor Upaniṣads are prior to the Āgamaśāstra is to be left as an open question, though some of them such as Brahmabindu° and Jābāla°, are before Śańkara as is quite clear from his commentary on BS, III. 2. 18 and 4. 20 respectively.

In five places (III. 12, 24, 25, 26 and 36) passages from Upaniṣads are expressly quoted, while in III. 11 and 23 the words *Taittirīya* and *śruti* are actually mentioned and in II. 3 a passage of the BU, IV. 3. 10 is clearly alluded to with the word *śrūyate*. Similarly in II. 5 another passage from the same Upanisad (BU, IV. 3. 14)

is clearly referred to though with the word manīṣins¹ and not śruti as before and usual. In III. 12, 13 and 15 references to Upaniṣads are also very clear. In two or three more places (I. 2, 8, 9) references seem to have been made to Upaniṣads.²

It will be seen that no Upaniṣad is quoted or referred to by our author in his last Book, 'Alātaśānti. There is absolutely nothing of the kind."

As regards class (2) of the sources readers are referred to § 6: The Name of the Work of the present Introduction, p. lxiii, where the names of different schools or teachers alluded to in our text, are mentioned.

It appears from these names that some of the schools or teachers mentioned by our author here were undoubtedly prominent at his time, but gradually they have lost their prominence and have fallen almost into a state of oblivion.

With regard to class (3) of our sources, *i.e.*, the Buddhist texts, the reader is referred to the Annotation on II. 31, 32, 35 (cf. 38), 44, 46, and most of the kārikās in Book IV.

## § 12. The Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad as the Main Upaniṣadic Source of the Āgamaśāstra

In the preceding section we have seen that the BU is one of the sources of the ĀŚ in which there are

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> As in the Upanisad itself (BU, IV. 3, 14) there is atha khalv āhuḥ our author seems to have closen to take the nominative as *manīṣins* and not śruti. See II. 1, 5; IV. 54, and Appendix X: Additional Notes, II, 1.

See the Annotation.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> With regard to the word durdarsa in IV. 100 we cannot say definitely that it refers to KU, II. 12, as it is often found also in Buddhist works.

some quotations from or references to the former. In the present section it is proposed to examine to some extent the inter-relationship of these two works by which we shall see that the main Upanişadic source of the ĀŚ is the BU.

From the text of the ĀŚ as it is before us it is quite clear that G a u d a p ā d a has drawn much upon it. In fact, Book I of our text is mainly based on it. Nay, it may be declared that Book I of the ĀŚ is nothing but an epitome or essence of the BU, IV. 2-3 with some clear exposition and an addition of the upāsanā 'meditation' of Praṇava or Om. By writing the first Book of the ĀŚ G a u d a p ā d a has in reality made a key to that portion of the BU, without which it would have been extremely difficult to understand its true significance.

The opening part of the  $\bar{A}$ \$, i.e., the part dealing with the three divisions of the One (i.e., Puruṣa) such as Viśva, etc. (l. 1-4, 10), is to be found only in different words in the BU, IV. 2-3, as says \$a \(\text{i}\) k a r a very clearly on BU, IV. 3. 1 (p. 519).

<sup>1</sup> III. I and Appendix X on it.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> atra ca jāgratsvapnasusuptaturīyāņy upanyastāny anyaprasangena indhaḥ (IV. 2. 2), praviviktāhārataraḥ 'IV. 2. 3), sarve prānāḥ (IV. 2. 4), sa eṣa neti neti (IV. 2. 4). idānīṃ jāgratsvapnādidvāreṇaiva mahatā tarkeṇa vistarato 'dhigamaḥ kartavyah (p. 519).

See here also Sankara's observation in showing the relationship between BU, IV. 2 and IV. 3 (p. 518):

<sup>°</sup>vijāānam ānandam brahmety avagatam. tad eva punar indhasamjāaḥ praviviktāhāras tato 'ntarhīdaye lingātmā praviviktāhārataras tataḥ parcņa jagadātmā. See further on IV. 3. 1 (p. 519).

We see in our text (I. 1-4, 10) that the One, i.e., Purusa<sup>3</sup> (=Brahman=Ātman of the MāU, 2) owing to different states is called Viśva, Taijasa, Prajña and Turva (or Turīya, I. 15). None of these names excepting Prāiña (BU, IV. 3. 21 and 35) is, however, to be found in the BU. For Viśva it reads (IV. 2. 2) Indha 'shining' which is the same as Indra, the former, as the Upanisad would say, being used by people cryptically.4 As to why the Purusa is called Indha Sureśvara says (BBV, IV. 2. 37) that 'because he shines day and night' (idhyate 'harnisam yasmād indhanāmā tatah pumān). This 'shining' implies, according to Anandagiri, his enjoyment of gross things in the waking state (śthūlārthabhoktrtvena sadā jāgare sphūrteh). Śa i kara is found to have employed both the terms in his commentary on the BU, Indha (BU, IV. 3. 1, p. 519) and Vaiśvānara (BU, IV. 2, 2-4, pp. 513-519). but not Viśva, so far as goes my information. with regard to the commentary referred to. From the text of the BU (IV. 2. 3, 3. 11, 35) itself it appears that

pratyakṣanāmagıahaṇam pradviṣanti jagaty api | śreyāmso 'mukamiśiās ta ity uktiṃ kāmayanti ca ||

In referring to a superior person the use of amuka 'so and so' or uni in Bengali, is still found. It is to be noted that in the country, at least in Bengal, a woman does not call her husband by his name, but for it uses such words as uni,

<sup>3</sup> As in the original of the text, i.e., BU, IV. 3 we have this word.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> It is a well-known saying in Brāhmaṇas that gods are fond of the cryptic, as it were, and dislike the evident 'parokṣapriyā iva hi devāḥ pratyakṣadviṣaḥ—BU, IV. 2. 2). Sureśvara says tin BBV, IV. 2. 37; p. 1365) that even now people do not like to call a superior person directly by his personal name:

if any other term for Viśva is to be chosen from that work it is only śārīra 'existing in the body,' 'embodied.' But Gaudapāda has not accepted it, but has adopted a new name, Viśva, probably thinking the latter to be more expressive of the idea behind it. Finally in the hand of the author of MāU it has undergone a further change in the form of Vaiśvānara 'common-to-all' perhaps for the same purpose.

Of these names Turya (or Turiya) 'fourth' is evidently not a name in fact, but as it is described after the first three Viśva, etc., it is so called, being their fourth. In the BU Indha-Indra is a name, no doubt, but Taijasa and Prājña were originally mere adjectives," becoming names afterwards. Sometimes the appellation Lingātman is found for Taijasa, as writes Ś a n k a r a in his commentary on the BU, IV. 2. 3 (p. 515), IV. 3. 1 (p. 518). Similarly sausupta is used for Prājña as says Sureśvara (BBV, IV. 3. 5, p. 1377). Undoubtedly this word clearly expresses the state of the Person.

As regards the wording of our text in the first Book of ĀŚ with which we are now concerned the following comparison may be made:

(i) With regard to Viśva our author writes (I. 2): dakṣiṇākṣimukhe viśvah." See here BU, IV. 2.2: indho ha nāmaiṣa yo 'yaṃ dakṣiṇe 'kṣan puruṣaḥ (=BU, II. 3.5; IV. 2.2; V. 5.2, 4).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> See BU, 11. 5. 8.

<sup>6</sup> Mark that the MaU is here silent.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> The idea that a person is seen in the eye and specially in the right one is often found in Upanisadic texts. Besides the BU quoted above see ChU, IV. 15. 1, VII. 7. 4; KtU, IV. 2, 17; MU, VII. 11. It simply signifies that

- (ii) In I. 2 we have ākāśe ca hṛdi prājñaḥ, and we read ya eṣo 'ntar hṛdaya ākāśaḥ in BU, II. 1. 17, IV. 2. 3, 4. 22. Cf. TU, I. 6. 1.
- (iii) In I. 3 there is praviviktabhuj,<sup>8</sup> and in this connexion we read tasmād eṣa praviviktāhāratara ivaiva bhavati in the BU, IV. 2. 3.
- (iv) With regard to the third or susupta state of the Person in I. 3, 4 there is anandabhuj or ananda, and in BU, IV. 3. 32 we read eşo sya parama anandah. See also, Op. cit., IV. 3. 33.9

It is to be noted here that the above conception of Puruṣa is found also in ChU, VIII. 7-12 in the course of Prajāpati's instruction to Indra and Virocana. Here, too, the first three names, Viśva, etc. are not given, S a n k a r a has used different appellations for them; viz., for Viśva he writes Akṣipuruṣa 'eye-person' (VIII. 7, 4, 79), or Chāyāpuruṣa 'shadow-person' (VIII. 10.4), or Chāyātman 'shadow-self' (VIII. 7.4, 8.1, 2); 10

he is visible to our eyes, and this means that he is the ordinary incorporated soul 'sārīra ātman'). This is quite evident from G a u d a p ā d a 's employment of the word -mukha after dakṣiṇākṣi-(1. 1: dakṣiṇākṣimukhe 'in the front of the right eye'). As to why the right eye is specially mentioned S u r e ś v a r a says (BBV. V. 2. 37-38, p. 1365) that it may be due to some excellence of the right eye, which might have been known to the smṛti, or to the fact that the right limbs of a man is more vigorous than the left ones. Sometimes the left eye is also referred to (BU, IV. 2. 3). See below.

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<sup>8</sup> See also I. 4.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> That the sentence yatra supto na kiñcana° in the MāU, 5, p. 224, is quoted from the BU, IV. 3. 19 is already shown. Introduction: §2, p. xlii.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> He uses this term also in his commentary on BS, I. 2. 13; on I. 3. 43 he has also  $\delta \bar{a}r\bar{r}ra$ .

for Taijasa he has Svapnātman (VIII. 1.1.1-2); and for Prājña he employs Suṣuptastha (VIII, 11.1-2). For Turya we have in the Upaniṣad (VIII. 12.3)

lt is to be noted that Sankara while in his commentary on BU gives all the three names, Visca, etc., he does not do so in the commentary on the ChU. It is further to be noticed that he, though so very fond of quoting srutis does not refer to ChU in his commentary on EU, nor BU in that on ChU.

A few words may be added here as to why Visca is said to be in the eye or in the right eye and consequently is called Aksipurusa, Chāyāpurusa or Chāyātman.

To understand the Highest Self (paramatman) is very difficult for a man who is not properly trained. It took Indra, as says the ChU, VIII. 7. 3 ff., not less than one hundred and one years to realize him. So he is instructed to do it gradually, following the maxim of the view of the star Arundhati 'Alcor' belonging to the Great Bear (Arundhatidarsananyaya). The star being a very small one cannot be seen at once. So a man in order to show it to another man first points out to the latter somethings other than the actual star one by one and finally succeeds in doing so. Sankara writes (ChU, VIII. 12. 1) the same thing in another way: On the second night of the bright half of a month a man desirous of showing a second man the fine moon first points out a tree before the latter saying: 'See, there is the moon.' In the same way he points out to him a series of trees one by one and then the peak of a mountain, on which the moon is visible, and thus the second man actually sees her. Similarly in our case, the mind of an ordinary man being too much attached to external things cannot at once grasp the Highest Self who is extremely subtle. Therefore, he is first instructed to know his incorporated Self 'sarira atman), other Selves or the different states of the Self being described gradually. Now, how to know the corporated Self? What is the best means for it? The sage of the Upanisads says: "Look here. Here is my right eye. Look at it. What do you find in it?" Certainly he would see himself reflected thereon. And pointing out the shadow the sage would tell him 'Here is the Self.' This is elaborately described in the episode of Prajapati and his two disciples, Indra and Virocana, in the ChU, VIII. 7-12, where it is said that the Self is to be seen not only in the eyes, but also on a looking glass adarsa, water ap), and an earthen jar filled with water (udośarāva). Śańkara rightly adds here (ChU, VIII. 7. 4, also such things as the blade of a sword (khadgādi). See KtU, IV. 2, 11. 17-18.

quite appropriately *Uttamapurusa* 'the Highest Self.' 12

That this conception of Purusa in ChU is a later development of that in the BU goes without saying. Now, though the ChU like the BU is far earlier than our text, there is nothing which can show that it is the former and not the latter which has been drawn upon by our author; yet, we have already seen what can be said in favour of BU.

In support of the view that the main source of the ĀŚ is BU we may discuss here one point more. The idea of Brahman (=Puruṣa=Ātman) as having four fourths or quarters (catuṣpād) at the beginning of the MāU is not a new one as it is found long before it even in the RV, X. 90. 3<sup>18</sup> as well as in ChU, III. 18. 2.<sup>14</sup> The difference of these texts lies, however, in the fact that the quarters (pādas) are different in them. For instance, in the RV referred to above all the beings (viśvā bhūtāni) are regarded as one quarter, and the remaining three quarters (tripād) are said to be in the heaven, while in the ChU, IV. 5-8

<sup>·2</sup> See BG, XV. 17-18:

uttamah purusas tv anyah paramatmety udah tah I yo lokatrayam avisya bibharty advaya isvarah II yasmat ksaram atito'ham aksarad api cottamah I ato'smi loke vede ca prathitah purusottamah II

S has here quoted no sruti. Srīdhara refers to BU, V. 6. 1 (sa vā ayam ātmā), but not appropriately.

<sup>13</sup> See ĀŚ, II. 21.

<sup>14</sup> For minor Upanisads see Brahmopanisad, 2: tatra catuspādam brahma vibhāti; NPIU, V. 1; NUTU, 1; RUTU, 3: so 'yam ātmā catuspād.

the four quarters each consisting of four parts (catuskala) are named as Prakāśavat 'shining,' Anantavat 'endless,' Iuotismat 'luminous,' and Ayalanavat 'having an abode.'15 In another place of the same Upanisad (III. 18. 1-6) the quarters of Brahman are described differently with reference to person (adhyātma) and with reference to divinities (adhidaivata). With reference to person they are speech (vāc), breath (prāna), the eye (caksus) and the ear (śrotra) representing respectively with reference to the divinities fire (agni), wind (vāyu), the sun (āditya) and quarter (dis). But in the MāU the quarters are described quite in a new way and it is remarkable. It is said that these four quarters are nothing but the same Self with its four states. The first three of them are waking (jāgrat), dreaming (svapna), and deep sleep (susupta). And the Self with them is called Vaiśvānara. 'common-to-all,' Taijasa 'brilliant,' and Prājña 'intelligent' respectively'. The fourth state is the true or absolute essence of the Self having no connexion whatsoever with anything else. In this state the Self is regarded as śānta 'quiescent,' śiva 'blissful' and advaita 'without a second.'

It is to be noted here that while in RV and ChU the Puruṣa or Brahman is represented as the Universal or World Self, in the MāU it is represented as the individual Self though ultimately in fact it is identical with the Universal Self.

Now, it is remarkable that though in the MaU, as

<sup>15</sup> For details see the Upanisad.

we have seen above, there is a clear mention and description of the four quarters of the Self (catusp $\bar{a}d$ ), in the AS it is not so. Even the particular word catuspād or any of its possible equivalents is not to be found here. Up to kārikā 5 we come across the threefold division of the Self, viz., Viśva (instead of Vaiśvānara as in the MāU, 3), Taijasa and Prājña (I. 1-4). It is clearly said in our text (I. 1-2) that the One exists in three ways in the body, and this idea is further expressed in I. 3-5. Yet, it cannot be said from this that the idea of four quarters is altogether unknown to the author of the AS, as it is implied in I. 10-15 in which the word turya or turiya, which is the same in meaning 'fourth,' as caturtha in the MaU, 7, is used. It is further implied by the author's employment of the word pāda in I. 25.16 This difference between the AS and the MaU with regard to the idea of four pādas, implied in the former and expressed in the latter, is significant. It shows that the origin of the AS is not the MaU, but the BU in which the idea of pādas in this connexion did not then so develop.17

En passant we should like to discuss one thing more. There is a very striking difference at the very

<sup>16</sup> See BU, IV. 1. 2-7 where each of the following six things, vāc 'speech,' prāṇa 'breath,' cakṣus 'eye,' śrotra 'ear,' manas 'mind,' and hṛdaya 'heart' is regarded as a pāda. Consult Sankara and Sureśvara (BBV, IV. 1. 16 ff) according to whom each of the above six is explained as catuṣpāda 'having four quarters.'

<sup>... &</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> This fact will also show that the ĀŚ is prior to the MāU in which the obscure points of the former are made clear.

beginning between the two texts, MāU and ĀŚ. It is this that while the MaU begins (1-2) highly extolling Om symbolically identifying it with Brahman-Atman. the AS has here nothing of the kind. It simply proceeds gradually to describe the One with its first three states, Viśva. Tajiasa and Prājāa (I. 1-5) the fourth having come afterwards (1. 10). Here in the ĀŚ till kārikā 19 there is no mention of, or reference to Om. So it is to be found that here in our text mention is made first of the One and then of Om. This order is quite right and logical. For, here there are two things, the object which is to be approached or realized (upeya) and its means (upāya). And it is reasonable that the object is stated first and then the means. Here the object is the realization of the Purusa or Self in its absolute state and the means is the meditation of Om. This is done in the AS, but it is quite reverse in the MaU, for here the means Om is stated first and then gradually the object (3-7) which is repeated later on (12). The author of the MaU seems to have been much influenced by earlier Upanisads, (such as ChU, I. 1. 1; TU, I. 8. 1) and too much bent on the glorification of Om, and this is why he has changed the reasonable order found in the AS. There is no upāsanā of Praņava in the BU and this is why our author of the AS did not include it in the main thesis of his work. Then independently of the BU in which no means for the realization of the object is shown Gaudapāda has added the remaining portion of the first Book of his AS setting forth Pranava and its upāsanā.

So far with regard to Book I. Let us now take up Book II and see the connexion it has with the BU. This Book is rightly called Vaitathya 'unreality' as it shows the unreality of the world in the waking state iust like that of the experience in dream. This is the subject discussed herein by Gaudapāda with various arguments. And here, too, he has taken his stand on the BU, IV. 3, where it is clearly declared that the two states, waking and dream, are in fact one. Not only are passages quoted from the BU, or referred to by him (II. 3, 5), but they are supported by his own arguments. This will be quite clear if one takes pains to read BU, IV. 3 and the second Book of the AS. And it should be noted that here in the latter we find the oldest interpretation of that portion of the BU, though in a concise, yet, very substantial form.

In Book III we are referred to BU not less than six times (12, 13, 15, 24, 25 and 26).

Thus we may safely conclude that the main Upanisadic source of the AS is the BU.

## \$ 13. Pre-Sankara Teachers of the Vedanta and their Works

Setting apart what we know of the Vedanta from the *Sruti-prasthāna* 'the Course of Revelation' or the Vedic literature, *i. e.*, the Mantras and Brāhmaṇas including the Āraṇyakas and Upaniṣads, as well as from the *Smṛti-prasthāna* 'the Course of Tradition or Remembered Texts', such as the *Mahābhārata* with the

Bhagavadgītā, it may conveniently be divided into two, pre-Sankara and post-Sankara.

Among the teachers of the pre-Sankara Vedanta the most distinguished is Bādarāyaṇa, the celebrated author of the Brahmasūtras, the source of which is the Upaniṣads. It is the Brahmasūtras that constitute the Sūtra-prasthāna 'the Course of Sūtras.'

We all know that the difference of opinions is but natural. Owing to various factors the same thing is viewed differently by different persons. So it is found in the Brāhmanas that there are both the offering of oblation before sun-rise (anudita-homa) and the offering of oblation after sun-rise (udita-homa), there being a regular discussion thereof establishing that the latter is preferable and not the former (Aitareya Brāhmana, XXV. 5-6; Taittiriya Brāhmana, II. 1. 2-8; cf. however, II. 1. 2. 12). There are also functions in these Brahmanas, which are discarded saying that these are not to be preferred (ādrtya) or performed (kārya), though they are actually enjoined by others. There are many such contradicting, obscure or dubious cases, and an attempt has also been made in later works to find out a solution of these problems.1

Now as with regard to karman the teachers had their different views, so they differed also on points of  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ . In some cases they entertained even quite opposite views. For instance, with regard to creation while a sage of a certain Upanisad (i.e., TU, II. 7.1;

<sup>1</sup> For instance, see MD. X. 8. 6 with reference to Sodasigrahana.

see ChU, III. 19. 1) tells us: 'In the beginning, verily, this was non-existent (asad vā idam agra āsīd),' but from another text (i.e., Aitareya Āranyaka, II. 4. 1) we know: 'Verily, in the beginning this was only Self (ātmā vā idam eka evāgra āsīd).' And the following is found in the ChU, VI. 2. 1-2, evidently refuting TU, II. 7. 1 quoted above: "Verily, in the beginning this was, my dear, existent only one without a second. On this some say that verily in the beginning this was non-existent only one without a second; from that non-existent the existent was produced. But, my dear, whence could it be? How from non-existent could the existent be produced? On the contrary, my dear, verily, in the beginning this was existent, only one without a second."

From the above it is quite clear that all the *śrutis* do not always tell us the same thing, clearly there is difference among them.<sup>2</sup> Such being the case the question arises as to which of them is to be accepted as valid and which is to be rejected as not valid. How can one say that this is valid, and that is not valid? For, as *śruti* there is no difference whatsoever.<sup>3</sup> Therefore if you accept one, you will have to accept all of them. And in that case you cannot arrive at any definite

tasyārṭhavādarūpāṇi niścitya svavikalpajāh | ekatvināṃ dvaitināṃ ca pravādā bahudhā smrtāḥ ||

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See with the *Prakāsa* of Puņyarāja the *Vākyapadīya* of Bhart<u>r</u>hari, I. 8:

<sup>3</sup> Śańkara has rightly observed (BS, III. 2. 15): nahi vedavākyānām kasyacid arthavattvam kasyacid anarthavattvam iti yuktam pratipattum pramānatvāvisesāt.

conclusion. And if there is no conclusion of any kind the teaching of the Vedānta has no value to a person as it does not or cannot lead him to his final goal. The Vedānta is not a science for mere speculation, for one is to adjust one's life according to it. For only in this way one can fulfil the mission of one's life. It was therefore felt absolutely necessary by the teachers to bring into a harmony, a compromise or a connected sequence, all conflicting, obscure or dubicus statements of the sages of the Upaniṣads. This was the origin on one hand of the Mīmāmsāsūtras with regard to the question of karman, and on the other of the Brahmasūtras in respect of jūāna.

4 Let us however put here a question: Are we right in thinking that even through the methods or maxims (nyāgas) shown in the Brahmasūtras in connexion with the explanation of the Upanicadic texts, we can in all cases get their true significance? By 'true significance' we mean the significance intended by their respective sages. It is true that the word asat may imply in some cases 'unfolded' or 'that of which the name and form are unfolded' (avyākita or avyākitanāmarēpa). For instance, see asac ca sac ca parame vyoman (RV, X. 5. 7); or nāsad āsīn na sac āsīt tadānīm, (Op. cit., X. 129. 1). In such cases asat does not mean 'false, non-existent' inirupakhya asati, as the son of a barren woman, though in other cases it may actually mean so. Now considering the above passage of the ChU it is clear that the word asst in the TU quoted above is used in its literal sense, i.c., the sense of unreal non-existent (nitupakhya asat, though an attempt is made in explaining it away figuratively to mean 'unfolded' (avyākrta) according to the subsequently established maxims of the Vedanta Eut a question arises: Well, in the TU the word asat may imply acyakrta as you maintain (see here BU, I. 4. 7: tad dhedam tarby avyākītam āsīt), but how do you ascertain that this meaning is in fact intended by the sage himself? How do you know that he does not want here to mean thereby absolutely non-existent inirupakhya arat? We can only accept that the meaning avyākrta is your explanation. But this may or may not be intended by the sage himself. There is this doubt that can hardly be removed.

It is well-known that I a im in i and B a d arāvana are the authors of the Mīmāmsāsūtras and the Brahmasūtras respectively. But there are reasons to think that there were also other authors of the Mīmāmsa- and the Brahma-sūtras which are different from the extant ones. For instance, B ā d a r i, a teacher, is quoted not less than four times both in the present Mīmāmsā- (III. 1. 3; VI. 1. 27; VIII. 3. 6; IX. 2. 33) and Brahma-sūtras (I. 2. 30; III. 1. 11; IV. 3. 7; IV. 4. 10). From this it may appear that B a d a r i was an author of both the sūtras. But we cannot ascertain only from this that he was actually so. It may be that he had some views on some particular points of karman and Brahman and these are alluded to in those two works by their authors. Jaimini, as the author of the Mīmāmsāsūtras is known to us all. He is referred to eleven times in the Brahmasūtras on different topics (I. 2. 28, 31, 3. 31, 4. 18; III. 2. 40, 4. 2, 18, 40; IV. 3. 12, 4. 5, 11). Here, too, we may think that I a i m i n i wrote also Brahmasūtras. But though from only this it is not safe to decide that he really did so, Sureśvara's Nsi (2nd ed. by Hiriyanna), p. 52, shows that it is a fact. Kāśakṛtsna, a teacher, is quoted in BS, I. 4. 22, and his Mīmāmsā is mentioned not less than three times by Patañjali in his Mahābhāsya, This Mīmāṃsā may be both Karmamīmāṃsā and Brahmamīmāmsā (i.e., the Mīmāmsāsūtras and the Brahmasūtras),

See Belvalkar, Op. cit., p. 140.

See Jaimini's Śārīrakasūtra in the Garbe-Festgabe, 1927.

<sup>7</sup> Kielhorn, Vol. II, pp. 206, 249, 325.

or either of them, and in this case probably the latter. Bādarāyaṇa in his BS refers also to Ātreya (III. 4. 44), Āśmarathya (I. 2. 29, 4. 20), Kārṣṇājini (III. 1. 9)8, and Auḍulomi<sup>9</sup> (I. 4. 21, III. 4. 45, IV. 4. 6).10

Then comes a number of teachers, some of whom flourished before and some after the great Sankara. Some of them explained the BS of Bādarāyaṇa, some the Bhagavadgītā, and some an Upaniṣad or Upaniṣads. There were also some who interpreted more than one kind of the above works. This was done either by writing a gloss (viti) or a commentary (bhāṣya). As we are concerned here with the pre-Sankara Vedānta the following teachers who are connected with it may be mentioned in this connexion.

So far as we know the first of all these teachers is Bodhāyana (about the first or second century A.D.). He wrote a lengthy gloss or commentary (vistīrņa viti) on the BS of Bādarāyaṇa on which is based the Viśiṣṭādvaita system of Rāmānuja, the Mīmāṃsāsūtras of Jaimini, and the Devatākāṇḍa, in other words, on the whole of the Mīmāṃsāśāstra. This

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> He is mentioned also in MD, IV. 3. 17, VI. 7. 35.

 $<sup>^9</sup>$  The Bhedābheda doctrine of the N i m b  $\bar{a}$  r k'a school owes its existence to him.

<sup>10</sup> To them may be added the names of Kāśyapa alluded to by Śāṇ-ḍilyain his Bhaktisūtras, 29, and of such sages as Asita, Devala, Bhṛgu, and Parāśara referred to in different works. But we do not know if they were the authors of different Brahmasūtras or if any one of them wrote also Mīmāṃsāsūtras, though we know something of their views from the fragmentary accounts available from certain books, some of which are referred to above.

vitti is called Kitakoti (Prapañcahidaya, TSS, p. 39; Journal of the American Oriental Society, 1911, p. 17).

Next comes U p a v a r s a. He is credited with the authorship of a vitti on both the Mīmāṃsāsūtras and Brahmasūtras. This vitti was, however, in fact a bhāṣya or Mahābhāṣya and consequently he was regarded as a Mahābhāṣyakāra as well as a Vittikāra, being the author of the vitti.

According to Rāmānuja (Vedārthasamgraha, p. 154) and Śrīnivāsadāsa (Yatīndramatadipikā, Poona ed., p. 2) Guhadeva, Kapardika (or Kapardin) and Bhāruci are three ancient Vedanta teachers and authors. The former two, being referred to by R ā m ā n u j a among the sistas 'wise men', seem to have been in favour of the Visistadvaita-vada. One Bharuci as an author of a Dharmaśāstra is mentioned in such works as Vijñāneśvara's Mitākṣarā on the Yājñavalkya-smrti (I. 18, Il. 124), and Mādhavācārya's tīkā on the Parāsarasamhitā (II. 2. 3, Bombay Sanskrit series ed., p. 510). It is not known if the Vedantic Bhāruci is identical with Bhāruci, the writer on the Dharmaśāstra. If it is so, he may be held to have belonged to the first half of the ninth century A. D.

Bhartrhari's name is found among a host of writers on the Vedānta (Siddhitraya, p. 5). He may be identified with the celebrated author of the Vākyapadīya (600-650 A.D.), the very first kārikā of which points to the Vedāntic doctrine.

With him is mentioned in the same work Bhartṛm itra. According to the Nyāyaratnākara on the Ślokavārttika (1. 10) he wrote a commentary on the Mīmāṃsāsūtras and made the Mīmāṃsāśāstra atheistic. Whether this Mīmāṃsist Bhartṛm itra and the Vedāntic Bhartṛm itra are one and the same is not known, nor do we know anything of any Vedāntic work that might have been written by the latter.

Brahmanandin (or Brahmānandin) is another teacher. He is known as the Vākyakāra or Chāndogyavākyakāra quoted or referred to by Rāmānuja in his commentary on BS and Madhusūdana Sarasvatī in his tīkā on the Saṃkṣepaśārīraka (III.218-220). According to Bhāskara on BS, I. 4. 25, Brahmanandin approved the Parināma-vāda, but Madhusūdana Sarasvatī (Op. cit.) is of opinion that it was in fact gradually to lead one to Suddhādvaita-vāda 'Pure monism' through the Vivarta-vāda or the doctrine maintaining that the appearance of the universe is imposed on Brahman which is the only reality, the phenomenal world being held to be a mere illusion.

After him is Dravidācārya or Dramidācārya (cir. 750 A.D.). He was in favour of the Visiṣṭādvaita-vāda 'Qualified monism' and as such is mentioned and quoted by Rāmānuja in his commentary on BS. As Madhusūdana Sarasvatī says (Saṃkṣepaśārīraka, III. 218-220), he wrote a bhāṣya on Brahmanandin's vākyas owing to which the latter was called Vākyakāra (Brahmanandi-viracitānām vākyānām sūtrarūpānām bhāsyakarta dravidā-cāryo'pi). It is known from Ānandagiri's tīkā on Śankara's bhāsya on the ChU that Dravidā-cārya wrote a vast commentary on the ChU compared with which Śankara's commentary was a smaller one (alpagrantha). He is said to have written a bhāsya also on the BS.

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Brahmadatta was a renowned teacher of the Vedanta. In the Prapañcahrdaya he is said to have composed a commentary on the BS. Some of his views are alluded to in such works as the Sarvarthasiddhi (II.16), a tīkā by Venkatanātha deśika on his Tattvamuktākalāpa; Nsi, 1. 67-68; and Śańkara's commentary on the BU, I. 4. 7. One of them may be mentioned here and it is this that it is the long bhavana 'meditation' of the knowledge arising from the Vedanta-vākya and not the knowledge itself, as holds Sainkara, that removes one's illusion. Some informations of him as collected by Hiriyanna will be found in Nsi (2nd ed.), p. xxiii, and the Journal of Oriental Research, Madras, Vol. II, Part I, p. 1 ff. See also Gopin ath Kaviraj, Op. cit., p. 13 ff.

Bhartṛprapañca was also a great Vedāntic teacher before Śaṅkara. It is known from the words of Madhusūdana Sarasvatī (Saṃkṣepaśārīraka, I. 7) that Bhartṛprapañca explained the Sūtras of Vyāsa, i.e., Bādarāyaṇa (kaiścit tatsūtraṃ vyācakṣāṇair bhartṛprapañcādibhiḥ). Yāmunācārya (Op. cit., p. 5) says that he was one of the writers on

the Vedanta, and we know from the introductory lines of Ānandagiri's ṭīkā on Śań kara's bhāṣya of BU (p. 2) that while Sankara commented on the Upanisad belonging to the Kanva recension Bhartrprapañca wrote his commentary on the text of the Madhyandina recension, and the former's commentary was bigger than that of the latter. In many cases Ānandagiri in explaining Sureśvara's värttika on the BU, refers to or quotes Bhartrprapañca. Of all the commentators before Sankara, the works of whom could not yet been discovered it is Bhartpprapa ni ca whose quotations are now mostly available. For the fragments gleaned together from his writings by Hiriyanna see The Indian Antiquary, 1924, pp. 76-86; and Proceedings and Transactions of the Third Oriental Conference, Madras, 1925, pp. 439.

I should like to mention here one teacher more of the pre-Sankara Vedanta. He is Sundara-pāṇḍya. He was a great Mīmāmsist and Vedāntin of South India (8th century A.D.). His three kārikās (gauṇamithyātva) are quoted by Sankara in the last portion of his commentary on BS, I. 1. 4. Amalānanda in his Kalpataru (BS, III. 25) quotes his other three kārikās (nihśrenyārohaṇa-prāpya). These last three kārikās together with two more are cited by Kumārila in his Tantravārttika (Benares ed.), pp. 852-853. It seems that these kārikās are from a vārttika of Sundarapāņḍya that he

wrote on some vitti or bhāṣya of some unknown author.11

There were also some teachers who wrote independent works on the Vedānta and of these authors the most distinguished is G a u d a p ā d a, the author of our  $\bar{A}gamaś\bar{a}stra$  which is the most important work, still extant, representing one of the most remarkable phases of the Vedānta. Here we find the first interpretation of some of the most important śrutis as we shall see later on.

## § 14. The Conspectus of the Contents of the Āgamaśāstra

Now we may give here a conspectus of the contents of our text, and in doing so Book I may conveniently be divided into two parts; part (i) containing kārikās I. 1-18, and part (ii) the remaining kārikās, i.e., I. 19-29. While part (i) discusses what is to be realized, part (ii) is devoted to show its means.

It is well-known that in the Upanisads all thoughts centre round the Purusa (Ātman = Brahman), 'Self' who is 'all that has been and that will be' (RV,X.90.2: purusa evedam sarvam yad bhūtam yac ca bhavyam). He must be known, according to the sages of Upanisads, for the fulfilment of the mission of one's life.

<sup>11</sup> S. Kuppuswāmī Śāstrī: Journal of Oriental Research, 1927, p. 1 ff.

On the main topic of this section see Gopinath Kaviraj, Op. cit., and P. V. Kane: Proceedings and Transactions of the Fifth Indian Oriental Conference, pp. 937 ff.

But how can he be known properly? As he is extremely subtle, Gaudapāda leads us gradually from the gross to the subtle, following our common and every-day experience. And in doing so he takes his stand on such Upanisads as the BU and ChU, and shows (1. 1-5) that the self, though in reality, only one (eka eva) remains in the body in three forms (tridhā dehe vyavasthitah), in accordance with his three states, jāgrat 'waking', svapna 'dream' and susupta 'deep sleep.' When the self is in the waking state he is called Viśva 'all' (because as an embodied one (śārīra) he is known to every man). In the state of dream he is named Taijasa 'brilliant' (because he himself is his light (svayamiyotis) in that condition; i.e., he does not depend for his light on others for seeing things there, as he does in the waking state in which he is to take light from such things as the sun, the moon, and fire).1 In the state of deep sleep he is called Prājña 'intelligent' (because he is never dissociated from his intelligence).2

Viśva is the embodied self (śārīra ātman), hence it is metaphorically said that he remains in the front of one's right eye, meaning thereby that he may be seen reflected in one's right eye (or in such things as

See BU, IV. 3. 1-9 : svena bhāsā svena jyotiṣā prasvapity atrāyam puruṣaḥ - svayamjyotir bhavati.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> BU, IV. 3. 23 ff.: yad vai tan na paśyati paśyan vai tan na paśyati. nahi drastur dṛṣṭer viparilopo vidyate 'vināśitvāt. na tu tad dvitīyam asti tato 'nyad vibhaktam yat paśyet.

<sup>3</sup> See p. lxxxxviii

<sup>4</sup> As the right portion of the body of a male person is said to be more powerful than the left the reflection therein is brighter. See p. lxxxxvii, note 7,

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water for a looking-glass) Taijasa is in the mind, ast iteis there that a man dreams. Prajña's seat is in the space of one's heart. Again, Visva has the consciousness of outside. Taijasa of inside, while Prājña has his consciousness compact. These three enjoy or experience the gross, the subtle and bliss 5 respectively.

In passing the author refers (I. 6-9) to the opinion of the sages that all things have their origin and mentions different theories or purposes of creation. The first theory is this that one creates all as the rays of one's mind (ceto'mśu). This simply means that it is the mind that appears in the form of the external world which has, in fact, no reality. This is the author's own view.

Then he reverts to his main subject, the Self, and says (1-10) that besides his three forms or quarters (pādas) in accordance with the three states, waking, etc., referred to above, there is one form more; it is his real, natural or innate form. It has no particular appellation as he is beyond all expressions and is designated by the simple word Tury a (or Turiya) fourth' as occupying the fourth place in order with the above three. This Turya is above all changes and duality, all-pervading, and when realized removes all miseries

- Gaudapāda then shows (11-18) some points of mutual agreement and disagreement of these four forms or quarters (pādas) of the Self, and says that one, if awakened from one's sleep due to illusion (māyā), can realize the state of Turya in which there is no duality at all. Duality, i.e., the expansion of the visible world, or the expressions, is mere illusion, and as such it has absolutely no reality. (Here it may be said that as there is no duality, in fact, it does not cease to exist. It is just a knot made and loosened by dint of illusion (māyayaiva kṛto granthir māyayaiva vimocitaḥ). Nevertheless, we have our common practice with duality, but it is only for our instruction, i.e., it is only by that practice that we can understand and attain to the state of non-duality which is the highest (advaitam paramārthataḥ). Here ends the first part of Book l.

The second part (19-29) demonstrates the means for the realization of that non-duality or Turya. It is nothing but the *upāsanā* 'meditation' (*dhyāna*) of the Puruṣa (=Ātman = Brahman), 'Self' through the symbol of *Praṇava* or Om.

In Book II G a u d a p ā d a discusses and establishes the unreality (vaitathya) of the external world. For this purpose he begins this Book as Book I basing it on the BU, specially on its IV. 3. 8 ff. He says referring to the sages 7 of that Upanisad that all things in dream are unreal on the following three grounds:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> See the following saying of the Bhagavat (i.e., Buddha), as quoted in MV, p. 540: ākāšena kṛto granthir ākāšenaiva mocitah.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Gau dap ā da does not employ here or elsewhere (i.e., II.5, cf. IV. 54) such words as rṣi or muni (II. 35) as is generally done in similar cases, but he has here the word manīṣin. This word, which is a Vedic one forming a phrase with āhuḥ, is used twice in our work (II. 1, 5) as in KU, I. 3. 4 and BG, XVIII. 3 (with a variation that pra- is prefixed to āhuḥ).

(i) becuase the things (such as a mountain, or an elephant) seen therein are inside the body; (ii) because the time being short one does not see the things having gone to those far places where one dreams them: and (iii) because one on waking is not found in the place where one dreams oneself to be. Having supported this proposition (II. 3) by a reference to the BU, IV. 3. 10, he asserts (II. 4) that the things in the waking state, too, are as unreal as those in dream, because in this state also the things are similarly inside the body, for the mind which appears in the form of different things around us is inside the body. Proceeding the teacher says (II. 5) on the authority of a scripture (BU, IV. 3. 14), supported by reasons, that the two states, dream and waking, are the same on account of the fact that the things experienced in them are of the same kind, there being no difference at all. Here, having offered one reason more in his favour and met an objection of his opponent, he says (II.9-10) that the experiences in waking and dream are equally unreal, both of them being the creation of the mind. Here arises a question (II. 11): If in both the states the things are unreal, then who is it that cognizes them? Who is it that imagines them? The answer is given (II. 12-15) according to the decision of the Vedanta that it is the Self that imagines himself as the Self through his own illusion, and it is he who cognizes the things. He creates some things in the mind which are not fixed and as such they vanish at once; and he creates also some other things in the mind

which are outside and fixed. There is, however, no difference between these two sorts of creation—the creation of those inside which exists as long as exists the thought (citta), and the creation of those outside, which exists as long as exists the (notion of) the two, i.e., the perceptible (grāhya) and the percipient (grāhaka); both of these two creations are only imagined and there is nothing for their difference. Again, the things which are within and not-manifest, and the things which are without and manifest are all imagined, indeed, the only difference there being that the latter are cognized by different organs of sense. As to the creation of the internal and external things he tells us (II. 16) that first one imagines oneself as a personal Self and then various things, internal and external, following the recollection of one's experience. Of this he says further (II.17-18) that as in the dark a piece of rope, or a continuous line of water, etc., not determinately known, is imagined to be a snake, so is imagined the Self. Now when the piece of rope is known determinately the things that are imagined there disappear at once,8 so is to be known about the ascertainment of the Self (Atman). It is an illusion of the Self owing to which he is imagined differently by differnt persons, such as the Breath (prāṇa) by those who know it, or Elements (bhūtas) by those who know them (II. 19-30). But the reality is, concludes (II. 31-34) the teacher, that according to those

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> The illustration of rajju-sarpa which is so widely known in Vedāntic works is found perhaps for the first time here in the ĀS. It is not in any of the Upaniṣads used for his Concordance by Jacob.

who are well-versed in the Vedānta, the universe is just like a dream (svapna), or an illusion (māyā), or an imaginary town in the sky (gandharvanagara). The highest truth is that there is neither disappearance nor origination; neither bondage, nor one desirous of emancipation. The universe is not manifold, either through its own nature or through that of others; it is neither different nor non-different. The sages (II. 35-38) who have fully mastered the Vedas have seen the truth that it is the cessation of the universe (prapañcopaśama), which is free from duality. Having known this, therefore, one should meditate on non-duality, and having realized it, one should behave as a fool among the people becoming an ascetic, and realizing the truth inward and outward, should remain unmoved from it.

Book III is devoted to show the non-origination of the universe. The author proposes (III. 2) that nothing originates, and concludes (III. 48) that this is the highest truth. In the course of the discussion he says (III. 5ff) that as the space (ākāśa or mahākāśa), owing to jars (ghaṭas), assumes the forms of the spaces occupied by the jars (ghaṭākāśas), and these forms, when the jars are destroyed, merge into the space, even so springs up the Ātman in the form of Jīvas 'individual persons' owing to the conglomerations of the different limbs, etc., and when these conglomerations are destroyed the Jīvas merge into the Ātman. If the space occupied by one jar is soiled with dust or smoke, not all the spaces occupied by other jars are soiled therewith, even so (i.e., not affected) are the Jīvas with reference to happiness, etc. The

forms, functions and names of the jars may be different, but the space is the same. This is the case also with Jīvas. As the space of a jar is neither a transformation, nor a part of the space, so is a Jīva neither a transformation nor a part of the Ātman. As the space is never soiled with a dirty thing such as dust and smoke, yet it appears to be so to the ignorant, so appears the Ātman with impurities to those who are not enlightened. In death or birth, in moving forward or backward, he exists in all bodies just like the space. All the conglomerations of limbs, etc., as in dream, are created by the illusion of the Ātman.

Now having shown what the liva is according to the Upanisads (TA, II. 1-6 and BU, II. 5) Gaudapāda says (III-13) that the praise of the identity of the liva and the Atman as well as the censure of their difference in the Upanisads is reasonable. And so, though their difference is found in some Upanisadic texts it is merely attributable with reference to the future state, and certainly it is not in the primary sense (III. 14-16). Indeed in the scriptures the creation is described with various illustrations showing a distinction between the Jiva and the Atman. But in fact there is no distinction. It is only to lead one to the truth. For, there are three kinds of people, viz., of the lower, the middle, and the higher visions and in order to help them an upāsanā is meant here (by the description of the creation involving some distinction which is mere attributive). Here (III. 17-18) with regard to the view of non-duality which he holds, our author says that it does not conflict with that of the dualists and shows how it does not do so.

Gaudapada reverts now (III. 19-32) to his main proposition, i.e., non-origination and offers some arguments in favour of it, refuting the views of his opponents. He says that though it is said that it is the unborn that is born, it cannot be maintained. It is true that in the scriptures creation or origination is found both from the existent (bhūta) and the non-existent (abhūta), yet, that which is reasonable is to be accepted. In scriptures origination is said to be through illusion, it is denied there and its cause is negatived. Now, origination may be either of the existent (sat) or of the non-existent (asat), but neither of them is possible. That which exists may originate only through illusion and not in reality; because, if it originates in fact, it is to be accepted that the thing which had already been originated originates again. The origination of the non-existent is not reasonable either in reality or through illusion, as in the case of the son of a barren woman.

As in dream so in waking there is only the mind, yet it appears in the form of the duality of the percipient and the perceptible. The duality is perceived by the mind, but when it becomes non-mind, i.e., when its function of thinking (manana) ceases, there is no duality. The author says here (III. 33-36) that the mind which becomes non-mind, and as such is free from the states of dream and deep sleep and has no determination (nirvikalpa), is identical with Brahman.

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This state of the suppressed (nigrhita = niruddha) mind is different from that in the deep sleep, because while in the latter it falls into a condition of stupidity (mūdha avasthā), it is not so in the former. This is attainable (III. 37-47) through an intense abstract concentration, called Asparsayoga 'contactless concentration, which, though very difficult, can be realized gradually by the means suggested by the author. When by that process the mind is completely suppressed being free from the states at stupefaction and distraction, not moving at all and having no senseimage whatsoever, it becomes Brahman. And it is said that in this state it rests on itself (svastha), it does not originate and is identical with the knowable which also does not originate. Here the author concludes (III. 48) that there is nothing that originates, and this is the highest truth.

G a u d a p ā d a begins Book IV, unlike the first three ones, with his homage to the 'Greatest of men' and the teacher of the yoga known as Asparśayoga, whom the present writer thinks to be no other than the Buddha (IV. 1-2). Introducing his thesis (IV. 3) he says that there are two classes of disputants, one of them holding that it is the existent (bhūta) that originates while the other says that which originates is the non-existent (abhūta). But the Advayas (=Advayavādins), i. e., Buddhists declaring that there is no origination at all maintain that neither the existent nor the non-existent comes into being (IV. 3-4). G a u d ap ā d a who is a Vedāntin subscribes to this last view

and says (IV. 5): 'We approve of non-origination declared by them; we do not dispute with them, listen as to how there cannot be any dispute.' He then advances (IV. 6-71) various arguments gathered from Buddhist sources in support of the view attacking and refuting the theory of origination in different ways and arrives at the conclusion that non-origination is the highest truth. In the course of it he shows among others that though it is generally believed that a thing which is not born is born, it cannot be so in reality, for in that case it is to be admitted that nature changes; what is unborn must always remain unborn, it is its nature. Yet, if you say that it takes its birth, then evidently it changes. But what is nature does in no way change (IV. 6-10).

The theory that the cause itself is the effect that is born (as held by the Sānkhyas) cannot be maintained (IV. 11-13), nor can there be any reasonable relationship or order between the cause and its effect (IV. 14-21). Again, nothing is produced either from itself or from other than itself; nor is there anything produced that is existent, non-existent, or both existent and non-existent (IV. 22). It is not possible to prove the beginning of a cause or of an effect, and as such neither of them comes into being (IV. 24).

Gaudapada offers here some reasons in his support from the standpoint of the Vijñānavādins (IV. 25-39) showing that the external things are unreal though they appear to be not unreal; they are, however, false as the experience in dream, being cog-

nizable only by mind (cittadrśya). He tells us again (IV. 40-41) that origination cannot be established, for there is no non-existent arising from the non-existent, nor is there any existent arising from the non-existent; there is no existent arising from the existent, and where is the non-existent arising from the existent?

It is true that the Buddhas have sometimes said of origination, but it is the instruction meant only for those who are afraid of the doctrine of non-origination (IV. 42). As an elephant called by illusion is said to exist only owing to the perception and the common practice, so it is said that a thing exists (IV. 44). He declares (IV. 45-46) that there is only vijñāna without the two (i.e., the percipient and the perceptible), it is quiescent and has no origination (aja); it does not move, it is not an object (vastu), yet, it appears to admit movements, it appears to be an object. Thus the mind and the objects have no origination. As a fire-brand being moved appears to be straight or crooked, even so the mind when it moves appears as the percipient and the perceptible (IV.42). And as the fire-brand when it does not move has no appearance of its being straight or crooked, even so when the mind does not move, it does not appear in the form of the percipient and the perceptible (IV. 48).

We have already seen that causation (hetuphala-bhāva) is not reasonable. The author explains it further in the following few kārikās (IV. 53-56) for his main purpose of establishing non-origination. With the same object in view he refutes (IV. 57) like the Buddhists

theories of eternality (śāśvata) and annihilation (uccheda), and says (IV. 58) that it is in the empirical truth (samortisatya) that things are originated, but not in reality. From an illusive seed may come forth an illusive sprout. This sprout is neither eternal, nor has it annihilation. It is to be known with regard to all things. Therefore there is no room for the appellation of 'eternal' and 'non-eternal' of anything (IV. 60). As in dream so in waking it is owing to illusion that the mind which is only one moves having the appearance of the external things. Whatever is experienced in dream is nothing but the mind, similarly whatever we see in the waking state is only the mind. As a creature formed of dream or made of illusion or by some supernatural power takes birth and dies, even so all these creatures exist and do not exist. Therefore there is no Jīva that takes birth, there is no possibility of it. That nothing originates is the highest truth (IV. 61-71). The duality consisting of the subject and the object is only the vibration (spandita) of the mind which has, in fact, no object, and consequently has no relation whatsoever to it (IV. 72-74).

Owing to the persistent belief in what is non-existent (abhūtābhiniveśa) the mind relates itself to its objects, but when their absence is known it turns back from them having no relation at all (nihsanga). Now, when it so turns back and does not move onwards, that position of it is unwavering, it is then free from sorrow, desire and fear. This is the field of the activities of the Buddhas. It shines forth once for all having no

origination, nor sleep, nor dream, and is the essence of reality (dharmadhātu, IV. 74-81).

This truth is, however, made obscure by the childish with their different notions; yet, one who can realize it attains the state of omniscience free from duality. And if it is so, what is beyond it that one may desire (IV. 82-85)? The author then shows that it is through the 'supra-mundane' (lokottara) knowledge by the realization of which one may become omniscient (IV. 86-89). Here he asks us to learn certain things from the Agrayāna of the Buddhists giving some of its leading thoughts (IV. 90-95).

As the state of detachment (asangatā) of our mind or knowledge is absolutely necessary, he tells us what it is and how it can be effected. Both the objects and their knowledge have no origination, and as there is no relation whatsoever between them the knowledge is said to be free from attachment (asanga). If this state is not achieved, there is no disappearance of the 'cover' or 'obscuration' (āvaraṇa-cyuti) from which we suffer. But in reality there is no cover or obscuration of anything, all the elements of existence being naturally unsullied (IV. 96-98). Concluding, the teacher declares that according to the Buddha the knowledge is not related to its objects, and these two things, i.e., the knowledge and its objects, are not mentioned by the Buddha (IV. 99), for, in fact, he has said absolutely nothing.

## § 15. The Philosophy of Gaudapāda

Let us now make an attempt to discuss a little the philosophy of G a u d a p ā d a as it is in our text, though it has already been done to some extent in the preceding section, i.e., the Conspectus of the Contents. As some of the philosophical views of our teacher have already been shown incidentally they will not be repeated here. Indeed, much has been written on this by my predecessors, yet when a new annotation is added hereto the subject may be discussed anew according to the light derived from it. In doing so we should keep our minds free from the influence of later thoughts, for it is not always safe to explain an older text by the thoughts in a subsequent work or works.

Now, it goes without saying that our teacher, G a u d a p ā d a, is a Vedāntist and he mainly deals with the Vedānta in the present work declaring its conclusion (II. 12, 31, 35). Naturally, therefore, as a Vedāntist, he treats his subject in accordance with the scriptures (śruti), yet, not without pure reasons. Direct or indirect, his reasonings are in many cases based on scriptures (II. 1-10; III. 24-26). But when there are contradictory scriptures, he says (III. 23) that those which are with reasons (yukti yukta) are to be accepted. Besides, throughout the work he has advanced a number of independent grounds which are very cogent. With a view to removing an apparent contradiction in the scripture he would interpret (III 14) a text in its secondary sense saying expressly

that the primary one is not reasonable. The well-known practice of explaining Upanisadic texts in their secondary senses among the later commentators of the Brahmasūtras may be seen first here in G a u d a p ā d a s interpretation.

Among the Vedāntists G a u ḍ a p ā d a is an Advaitist, the highest truth to him being advaita 'non-duality' (advaitam paramārthataḥ, I. 17; advaitam paramārtho hi, III. 18; advaite yojayet smṛtim, II. 36). He says (II. 31) that according to the Vedānta the universe is like dream or illusion or an imaginary town in the sky (gandharvanagara). There is no duality at all, it is mere illusion (I. 17).

The statement of the duality in the scripture is intended for the instruction (of the ignorant), and so when the truth is understood the duality does not exist (I. 18) and its cessation is bliss (I. 29; see also II. 35). He says (I. 17) further that the duality is due to illusion (māyā). In order to support this view he quotes scriptures (III. 24) which say 'There is no plurality (neha nānāsti kiñcana, BU, IV. 4. 19; KU, IV. 11)'; and 'Indra appears multiform through māyās' (BU, II. 5. 19)'; and he concludes (III. 24) that 'He (Prajāpati) is born variously, though (in fact) he does not take birth (VS, XXX, 19).

Having thus offered the scriptural evidence for maintaining the view that the duality is mere illusion and as such it has no reality, Gaudapāda gives us some pure reasons. Here, too, first he refers us to a scriptural text (BU, IV. 3. 14) and says (II. 5) that the two

states, dream and waking, are the same and one, because of the identity of the nature of the things experienced in them. That the things in dream are unreal is well-known to all and it is said also by the wise (BU, IV. 3. 8 ff), and can be maintained on the following grounds:

The things (such as mountains) in dream are within as they are enclosed or in an enclosed place (II. 1, IV. 33); but if they are real it is impossible. The time being very short, or there being no fixed rule of time. it cannot be said that the dreamer really goes to the distant land dreamt of by him and sees things there. Nor is he seen there when he awakes (II. 2, IV. 34). Again, when he awakes he does not find his friends and others whom he had then in dream grasped (IV. 35). Further, it is said in our scripture (BU, IV. 3. 10) that in dream there are no chariots, etc., yet, they are seen there. Similarly, in the waking state, too, the things we see around us are unreal on account of the fact that they are within (II. 4; IV. 33). That which is non-existent at the beginning and at the end is so also in the middle, i.e., at the present. Therefore, being like the unreal (such as mirage) the external things appear as not unreal (II. 6; IV. 31). In both the cases, dream and waking, things are only imagined by the mind. That which is imagined by the mind within is regarded as non-existent (asat), while that which is imagined by the mind without is regarded as existent; but the unreality of both of them is reasonable and a matter of experience (II. 9, 10). Whether in

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dream or waking, whatever is cognizable by the mind is unreal (cittadṛśyam avastukam, IV. 36). Moreover. in both the states the mind though in its own nature is undoubtedly without the two (i.e., the percipient and the perceptible), yet it moves owing to illusion with the appearance of the two (III. 30; IV. 62). This duality comprising the movable and the unmovable is therefore perceptible only by the mind. Hence when the mind becomes non-mind, i.e., when it ceases from its function of thinking, no duality is experienced (III. 31). The cessation of the function of thinking of the mind, or, in other words, the state of non-mind is reached when the mind through its knowledge of the truth of the Atman does not think anything being noncognizant owing to the absence of the things to be cognized (III. 32).1

We have seen above that the waking experience is as unreal as the dream experience both of them being due to  $m\tilde{a}y\tilde{a}$  or mere imagination of the mind that moves on account of  $m\tilde{a}y\tilde{a}$  (spandate māyayā manaḥ, III. 29; cittaṃ calati māyayā (IV. 61).

That all these external things are the creation of

I G a u d a p ā d a seems to have been fond of compromising conflicting views (III. 17; IV. 5) and so considering the opinion of the Dvaitins, i.e., those who maintain duality, he says (III. 17 ff.) that they are firmly fixed in their own distinctive conclusions and contend one another, but his view does not conflict with them. In explaining it he says (III. 18) that the supreme reality is non-duality, yet, it is not that we do not admit duality, we do it; so there is no conflict amongst us. The only difference amongst us is this that while according to you duality is in reality as well as in appearance we hold that it is only in appearance on account of illusion, and not also in reality (III. 19),

the mind is further said (IV. 72) and described elaborately by Gaudapāda (IV. 47-52) with a very apt illustration of the fire-brand (alāta). A fire-brand. only when it is moved, and not when it is not moved, appears to be straight or crooked, or so. Now these appearances are not produced from anything other than the fire-brand. And when it is at rest they are not in a place other than it, nor do they enter into it. Similarly when the vijnana or mind moves and not when it does not move, it appears in the form of the duality consisting of the percipient and the perceptible. These appearances are produced not from anything other than the vijñāna; and when it is at rest they are not in a place other than it, nor they enter into it. He says again (IV. 63-66) that as animals seen in dream are visible to the mind of the dreamer and do not exist apart from it, and as such they are the mind of the dreamer, even so the animals seen in wakefulness are visible to the mind of the waking one and do not exist apart from it, and as such they are the mind of the waking one.

Clearly this is the *Vijnānavāda* 'Idealism' before us. Now taking here into consideration the passages quoted under IV. 72 from the LA, and comparing the kārikās IV. 47-52 with the corresponding Buddhist passages quoted in the Annotation under IV. 52, one will be struck with the agreement between a Vedāntist and a Vijnānavādin. One will also be in

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Mark here the use of the word vijñāna in these kārikās, and not of citta or manas.

a position to understand how far Gaudapāda is here influenced by the Buddhist thoughts and arguments. It is, however, to be noted that Gaudapāda, though much influenced by the Buddhist thoughts, maintains his position as a Vedantist. It is true that he advocates the Vijāānavāda, but certainly it is originally adopted by him from the Upanisadic source, i.e., BU, IV. 3. 14. on which is based his fundamental statement (II. 5) that the two states, dream and waking, are one. This Upanisadic seed of idealism being influenced by its elaborate system in Buddhism and the vast literature on it by the Buddhist teachers who flourished before G a u d a p ā d a, has developed into what we now find in the Agamaśāstra. But when there are the above and the similar germs of idealism in the Upanisads<sup>3</sup> it must be accepted that it did not first originate with the Buddhists, though it has much developed in their system later on.

There are thus two schools of Vijnānavādins, (1) Vedāntists headed by Gauḍapāda and (2) Buddhists with Maitreya at the head. In both the schools the external world is the creation or transformation of the mind. But while in the first the cause for that transformation is māyā (III. 29; IV. 61) it is vāsanā (LA, X. 150) in the second, both of them being without beginning (anādi). This māyā and vāsanā

<sup>3</sup> See Aitareya Upaniṣad, III. 2-3; TU, III. 5: vijñānam brahmeti vyajānāt. vijñānād dhy eva°.

bāhyo na vidyate hy artho yathā bālair vikalpyate | vāsanair luditam cittam arthābhāsam pravartate |

may, however, be regarded as the same thing. For  $v\bar{a}san\bar{a}$ , though explained as  $p\bar{u}rva$   $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  'previous knowledge' is conceived as a cosmical force, transcendental illusion (*The Conception of Buddhist Nirvāṇa*, Leningrad, 1927, p. 209). The real difference then between these two schools in the present case is with regard to the intervention of the Ātman with whom  $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$  is connected in the first, and his denial' in the second where the  $v\bar{a}san\bar{a}$  is with the *citta*.

Now, the māyā of the līva referred to above like vāsanā has no beginning. He sleeps on account of it being himself deluded by it (I. 16; II. 19). He himself imagines himself and various other things through his own māyā, some of them being within while others without (II. 13). These things, i.e., those which are within and exist as long as exists the thought (citta), as well as those which are without and exist as long as remains the notion of the two, are only imagined (II. 14, 15). In the process of the imagination first he imagines himself as a Jīva 'personal soul' then various things, external and internal (II. 16). Consequently as in the dark, a piece of rope not known determinately is imagined to be a snake or a continuous line of water, etc., even so is imagined the self; but when that piece of rope is known determinately the imagined snake, etc., vanish and there is no duality. So is to be known of the ascertainment of the self (II. 17, 18).

cittamātram na drsyo 'sti dvidhā cittam pravartate | grāhyagrāhakabhāvena ātmātmīyam na vidyate || LA, III. 21

But what is the characteristic of a liva? As we have seen above, Gaudapāda explains it (III.3-9) by an apt illustration of ākāśa 'space' or mahākāśa 'great space' and ghatākāśas 'spaces occupied by different jars'. As it is owing to the condition (upādhi) of iars that the ākāsá is regarded as ghatākāsas, so it is on account of the conglomerations (of the different parts of the body) that the Atman is regarded as Jivas. Consequently as when the jars are destroyed spaces occupied by them are completely merged into the great space (mahākāśa), even so are merged the Jivas into Atman when the conglomerations are destroyed. The spaces occupied by all iars are in reality only one; yet if the space occupied by one jar is covered by smoke or dust, etc., not all the spaces occupied by all other jars are connected with it. The case is the same also with the līvas in regard to their happiness, etc., i.e., if one Jīva feels happiness or suffers pain, not all the Jivas are subjected to it. There may be different conditions (upādhis); their forms, functions and names may differ from one another, but as regards the space occupied by them there is no difference. Similar is the case with reference to the Jivas. Again, the space occupied by a jar is neither a transformation (vikāra), nor a part (avayava) of the space (ākāśa), similarly a Jiva is neither a transformation nor a part of the Atman. Gaudapada says further that the Atman like the space remains in all the conglomerations or bodies which, too, have no reality as dream being the creation of the illusion of the Atman (III. 10). The Jiva is the supreme soul of the 'sheaths' (kośas) as described in the TU, II. 1-6, and the supreme Brahman or Ātman is shown in the Madhuvidyā section of the BU, II, 5. That the identity of the Jīva and the Ātman without distinction is praised and their distinction is censured in the scriptures is reasonable (III. 13), for though in some texts their distinction is to be found, those texts are to be taken in their secondary sense, the primary one being not reasonable (III. 14). Here the distinction is made purposely, it is made out of compassion to help one of inferior vision in one's upāsanā which is for such a person impossible without some sort of distinction (III. 11-16). It is not that such a distinction must be a real one.

It is said that the mind becomes non-mind and G a u d a p ā d a is definitely of opinion that Brahman is nothing but the mind that has become non-mind. He says that the mind in the state of susupta 'deep sleep' falls into a sleeping state (laya), but it does not do so when it is suppressed (nigrhita = niruddha), and indeed that is Brahman above fear and radiant with the light of jnāna (III. 35). See IV. 77-81, and below. He expresses the same thing in other words saying that when the mind is completely suppressed (niruddha) and as such is free from all movements and does not perceive anything else it becomes Brahman (III. 46):

yadā na līyate cittam na ca viksipyate punah t aninganam anābhāsam nispannam brahma tat tadā »

<sup>&#</sup>x27;When the mind is not in the state of sleep, nor is

distracted again, and as such has no movement, nor any sense-image, then it becomes Brahman.'6

It is to be pointed out that here for the first time, so far as goes my information, it is found that Brahman is nothing but the citta which by nirodha is anidra (I. 16; III 36; IV. 81; = alīna = amūḍha), asvapna (I. 16, III. 36; IV. 81; = avikṣipta), aningana (III. 46; = akṣipta), and anābhāsa (III. 46; = nirābhāṣa = nirākāra = arūpaka, III. 36). Another appellation of this citta is sanirvāṇa with extinction (III. 37), i.e. in this state it is extinct. It is jāāna 'knowledge' or 'thought' but akalpaka (III. 33; = nirvikalpa) 'indeterminate' and consequently asaṅga 'having no attachment or relation to any object' (IV. 72, 96; = niḥṣaṅga IV, 79, see IV.99 = nirviṣaya, IV. 72). Being as such this jāāna is not different from the knowable (jāeyābhinna), which is Brahman (III. 33).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> The first half of the kārikā implies that in this state of the mind, which can be reached by Asparśayoga (III. 39-45; IV. 2) it is free from the conditions known in the Yoga systems as mūdha 'stupefied' and vikṣipta' distracted' (Vyāsa on the YS, I. 1). These two are also expressed by our teacher as anidra 'sleepless' and asvapna' dreamless' respectively (III, 36; I. 16; IV. 81).

<sup>7</sup> Vācaspati (YS, I. 1): mūḍham tu tamaḥsamudrekān nidrāvṛttimat. kṣiptād viśiṣṭam. viśeṣo' sthemabahulasya kādācitkaḥ sthemā.

<sup>8</sup> Here sanirvāņa mind=amanībhāva (III. 31; MU, VI. 34; YV, III. 67. 8);=amanastā (III. 32; Mukti UP. 11. 29)=unmanībhāva (Brahmabindu UP, 4) manaḥkṣaya (MU, VI. 20)=manorāśa (Mukti UP, II. 10, 35, 36, 39)=manolaya (Nādabindu UP, 47)=acttlatā (Mukti UP, II. 20)=cittanāśa(Op. cit. II. 32, 34; Sāṇḍilya UP. in One Hundred and Eight Upaniṣads, Nirnayasagar, 1917, p. 358).

<sup>9</sup> See the Annotation on IV, 72.

It is further said that in this state the mind rests in itself (svastha, III. 47; = ātmasamstha, III. 34).10

This Brahman of Gaudapādathen points on one side to the state of kaivalya 'the state of being not connected with anything else," or the resting of the Drastr or Purusa 'Self' in himself (svarūpa, i.e., cinmātra 'pure thought'), as described in YS, I. 3,12 and on the other to the resting of the citta in the viinaptimātratā of the Yogācāras or Vijñānavādins. According to the latter citta, manas, vijñāna and vijñapti are synonyms. 13 Therefore vijnaptimātratā is the same as vijñānamātratā which means the state of pure and simple vijāāna 'intellect' or 'consciousness.' Here in this state there is the highest cessation of the perceiving faculty of the mind.14 And this is in their opinion mukti 'deliverance,' 15 This is also the 'highest place of Visnu' (KU, I. 3. 9; MU, VI. 26; RV, I. 22. 20; 154. 5 with a slight variation), not only according

MSA, 47.

<sup>10</sup> This will remind one of the following in the ChU, VII. 24. 1-2:

Yatra nānyat pasyati nānyac chṛṇoti nānyad vijānāti sa bhūmā.° sa bhagavaḥ kasmin pratisthita iti. sve mahimni. yadi vā na mahimnīti.

<sup>11</sup> YS, IV. 34: purusārthasūnyānām guņānām pratiprasavah kaivalyam svarūpapratisthā vā citisakteh.

<sup>12</sup> tadā drastuh svarūpe 'vasthānam.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> Vk, p. 3; AK, II. 34; MV, p. 303; VM ed. D. Kosambi, XIV.82.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> MSA, XI. 47: parama upalambhasya vigamaḥ; Tk, p. 29: acitto 'nupalambho 'sau; see TSN, 36.

<sup>15</sup> viditvā nairātmyam dvividham iha dhīman bhavagatam

samam tac ca jñātvā pravišati sa tattvam grahaņataḥ | tatas tatra sthānān manasa iha na khyāti tad api tad akhyānam muktiḥ parama upalambhasya vigamah #

to the Upanisadists, 16 but also to the Vaisnavas (BP, II. 1. 19).17

One point is to be discussed here. Brahman of the Vedāntists or G a u d a p ā d a (III. 30) is eternal (nitya), and if it is so, how can it be suggested, as done before, that Brahman and the citta in Vijnaptimātratā are the same, for according to Yogācāras jnāna is not eternal, but momentary (kṣaṇika)? The following is the solution:—

In the authoritative Buddhist works<sup>18</sup> the following words are used for nirvāṇa: dhruva 'enduring' amṛta 'not dying', acyuta 'stable', akṣara 'imperishable', ajarjara 'not decaying' and apalokita<sup>19</sup> 'not broken down.' Certainly these words do not imply momentariness, but on the contrary some kind

The third and the first part of the fourth lines are explained there thus: tatas tatra tattvavijnaptimātrasthānān manasas tad api tattvam na khyāti vijnaptimātram. tad akhyānam muktih.

- 16 MBU, p. 12:
  - yan manas trijagatsṛṣṭisthitivyasanakarmakṛt ! tan mano vilayaṃ yāti tad viṣṇoḥ paramaṃ padam "
- tatraikāvayavam dhyāyed avyucchinnena cetasā ( mano nirviṣayam yuktvā tatah kiñcana na smaret ( padam tat paramam viṣnor mano yatra prasīdati "
- <sup>18</sup> VM, p. 224; SN, IV. 369 ff; Poussin: Nivāņa, A CN XXV, pp. 153-4.
- 19 Poussin has for it in French (Loc. cit.) with a query "le Soupçunne" ('suspected' or 'surmised'). But as clear from Buddhaghosa on SN, IV. 370 (apalujjatāya spalokitam, it is derived from pra-\(\sigma\ru vij\) and not from pra\(\sigma\lambda luk\) as may appear. And so it can be said in the words of Yasom it rata (AKV2, p, 23) with regard to the derivation of the word loka that rujir iha grhīto na lokih. See my note, A passage of the Abhidharmakošavyākhyā, in IHQ, Vol. II, pp. 418 ff., and Poussin's Rejoinder, p. 656.

of stability. Now the citta in the state of vijnaptimatrata is described variously according to the vareity of the aspects beginning from the 'Path of Illumination' (darśanamārga) in Vasubandhu's Tk. 29-30.20 It is said there to be lokottara iñana 'super-mundane knowledge, aśrayaparavrtti (aśrayasya paravrttih) 'the revolution or change of the recipient', i.e., the 'ālayavijnana, and anasrava dhatu 'undefiled element' which is dhruva 'enduring.'21 Here by the word āśrayaparāvītti referred to above we understand, in brief, that owing to the elimination of the two sorts of evil condition (dausthulua), viz., the 'covers' or 'obscurations' (avaranas), namely, the knowable (iñeua) and the passions (kleśas), the recipient (āśraya), i.e., alayavijnana, turns back to its natural state in the form of advaya jñāna 'the knowledge free from the two,' i.e., the subject and the object. In other words, the ālayavijñāna which was before covered or obscured, the obscurations being now removed, gets its own innate state, i.e., the state of advaya (=lokottara) jñāna. This is called anāsrava dhātu 'undefiled element' which is dhruva.

<sup>20&#</sup>x27; See our text, IV. 18, foot note 1, where these two kārikās with the introductory line of Sthiramati are quoted.

On these words the commentary of Sthiramati may be quoted here:

aparicitatvāt (Tib. hdras. par. ma. byas. pa. dan, for anucitatvāt in the printed text) loke samudācārābhāvāt (for which Tib. suggests samudayābhāvāt reading kun. tu. hbyun. ba. med. pa. dan), nirvikalpatvāt ca lokād uttīrņam iti jūāṇaṃ lokottaraṃ ca tad iti°. āśrayo 'tra sarvabījakam ālayavijūānam, tasya parāvṛttir yā dauṣṭhulyavipākadvayavāsanābhāvena parāvṛttiḥ°. nirdauṣṭhulyatvāt sa tu āśrayavigata itv anāsravah°. dhruvo nityatvād aksayatayā°.

But what is the true significance of the word dhruva, that is intended here? Among the 33 descriptive words for nirvāṇa found in SN, IV. 368-373 and 46 synonyms for it in AP. 6-9, we have dhruva and never nitya. It is true that sometimes the words nitya, dhruva and śāśvata are used as synonyms (Pali vevecana = vivacana = paryāya), as says Buddhaghos a himself on SN, I. 142. Yet, there is some difference in their meanings. For while śāśvata, according to him, means 'always existing' (sadā vijjamānam) dhruva implies 'enduring' (dhuvam'ti thiram; he writes also on SN, IV. 370: thiratthena dhuvam).

Jaina teachers, too, are of the same opinion. In connexion with the definition of dravya 'substance' in their system they give the same explanation of the word dhrava or dhravya using the same or similar words.<sup>21</sup>

In the older Upanisads Ātman or Brahman is nitya and not dhruva. The word nitya implies that it does not admit of any change, while dhruva does not do so. Let us give here an illustration. If of a lump of gold a number of different ornaments is made one after another, their forms change, yet, through these changes

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup> With regard to pāpaka diṭṭhigata: idam niccam idam dhuvam idam sassatam. See also Sthiramati, Tk, 30, explaining dhruva as quoted in foot-note 2!.

<sup>23</sup> Tattvārthādhigamasūtra, V. 29: utpādavyayadhrauvyayuktam sat.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup> Tattvārtharājavārttika (Sanātana-Jainagranthamālā, 1915), V 29 (dhrava = sthira); Tattvadīpikā on Pravacanasāra (ed. A. N. U p a d h y e , 1935) II. 3 (dhrauoya = avasthiti); Tattvadīpikā on Paūcāstisamayasāra (Rāyacandra Jainasāstramālā, 2nd ed.), 10: purvottarabhāvocchedotpādayor api svajāter aparityāgo dhrauvyam; Sanmatitarka (Gujarāta-Purātattva-mandira, Ahmedabad, 1940 V.S), Gāthā 12, p. 410 (dhrauvya = sthiti).

the same gold continues to exist. Owing to this continuance it can be said that gold is here dhruva 'enduring', but not nitya 'eternal'.

The Ālayavijñāna is certainly momentary (kṣanika), as it changes every moment. It does not therefore move forward as one and the same (ekam abhinnam), but continues in an uninterrupted stream (santati) as the flood with its currents (srotasā oghavat). This continuity has no beginning, nor has it an end (anādinidhana) till nirvāṇa. Now as through all the moments the Ālayavijñāna continues it is dhruva and not nitya.

It may be pointed out here that there is more than one kind of nityatā 'eternity' according to the primary and the secondary senses of the word; viz., (i) kūtasthanityatā 'eternity as unchangeability' as of Ātman or Brahman of the Vedāntists; (ii) parināmanityatā 'eternity as transformation' as held by the Sānkhyas and the Jainas. To these two may be added, according to the Buddhists, (iii) one more, viz., santatinityatā 'eternity as continuance.' It may, however, be the same as parināma-nityatā. Where in such cases in Buddhist texts the word nitya is employed it is to be taken in this light.

Now in support of the main problem we are here concerned with, the following couplet may be taken into consideration:

prabhāsvaram idam cittam prakṛtyāgantavo malāḥ t teṣām apāye sarvārtham taj jyotir avinaśvaram || 25

Quoted by Jayatīrtha representing the views of the Vijnānavādins in his tikā (sl. 30, on TAK, III, p. 35). It is already cited once more on p. 70 of our text.

Mark that *citta* is said here to be avinasvara jyotis the light that is not liable to be destroyed '.25

It may therefore be safely concluded that G a u d aā d a 's Brahman and the citta in vijāaptimātratā f the Yogācāras are in fact the same thing with the nly one difference that while the former is nitya the atter is dhruva.

Let us remember here what G a u d a p ā d a says bout Brahman (III. 35-36, 46-47), <sup>27</sup> as we have seen ast now from the Vedāntic point of view, and compare with what he says in IV. 76-81 <sup>28</sup> of the 'field f the activities (viṣaya) of the Buddhas' describing

## 26 See also the following:

- (i) tatrotpannapradhvaṃsi vijāānam anutpannapradhvaṃsi jāānam A, p. 157. See our text p 85, foot-note 2.
- (ii) Jāānasiddhi (Two Vajrayāna Texts, GOS, p. 85), XV, 50, referring cittadhārā 'current of thought' (in the text read cittadhāraiva for chitta-tāreva in 48):

anādinidhanā śāntā sarvadharmeśvarī ca sā | bibharti sarvarūpāņi satyadvayasamāśritā ||

- (iii) Op. cit., p. 75 : anadinidhanam śantam bodhicittam.
- (iv) Op. cit., p. 86: jāānam amaraņam° anabhilāpyam.
- (v) Suzuk i writes in his Outlines of Mahāyāna Buddhism, 1907, 348: "Nirvāṇa is sometimes spoken of as possessing four attributes; eternal (nitya), (2) blissful (sukha), (3) self-acting (ātman), and pure (śuci). It is eternal, because it is immaterial; it is blissful, because is above all sufferings; it is self-acting, because it knows no compulsion; is pure, because it is not defiled by passion and error."
- 27 Brahman is that citta which is unwavering and has no sense-image or origination, nor sleep, nor dream: aninganam anabhasam (III. 46) and ajam hidram asvapnam cittam (III. 36).
- The field of activities or the aim of the Buddhas is the unwavering esition of the mind having no origination, nor sleep, nor dream: cittasya sutpattih (IV. 77) and niścalā sthitih (IV. 80), and ajam anidram asvapnam tam (IV. 81).

and approving the views of the Buddhists; it will then be clear that the same thing has been said by Gaudapāda in two places almost in the same words though from the two different standpoints.

We have already discussed the Vijñānavāda as it is in our text. It may be noted here in this connexion that it is treated here by G a u d a p ā d a only with a view to the establishment of the Ajātivāda 'the Theory of Non-origination' which is one of the most important topics of the philosophy of G a u d a p ā d a. Having proposed to show what it is first in III. 2 and then in IV. 5 he declares (III. 48) and affirms (IV. 71) that the highest truth is that nothing originates. For details the reader is referred to the Conspectus of the Contents (pp. exiii-exxvi) and the work itself, we should like to point out here only a few important aspects of it.

The subject is dealt with by our author as a Vedāntist separately in two places, Book II and Book IV. In the former he does so purely from the Vedāntic point of view supporting his thesis by scriptures and grounds based on them or in favour of them, some of these grounds being strikingly similar to those offered by the Buddhists for the same purpose; while in the latter he expresses his approval on behalf of his school regard ng ajāti as declared by the Advayas or Buddhists saying that he does not dispute with them onthis point and asking his followers or the people at large to listen to him as to how there cannot be any dispute. He proceeds then to show throughout the Book IV the

arguments of the Buddhists taking even the actual words from their authoritative works in a number of cases. Readers are here referred to our text with Annotation.

One point may be pointed out here. In Book IV G a u d a p ā d a has discussed nothing directly of the Vedānta, <sup>20</sup> as nothing Vedāntic will be found therein. In explaining the Vedānta in accordance with his own light he establishes the Ajātivāda in Book III, as we have seen above. Then in Book IV he supports that theory referring to the Buddhists who also hold the same view independently of the Vedāntists. Gaudapāda says here that his school approves of what they say on this point and shows their arguments one by one.

From this it may appear that whatever is said by G a u d a p ā d a as the opinion of the Buddhists in that Book is approved or accepted by him. But can it be said strictly? The Buddhists being the follower of the Middle Path (madhyama pratipad) reject both the extreme views of 'eternity' and 'annihilation' (śāśvala- and uccheda-vādas). This is alluded to in our text in IV. 57-60. But how can G a u d apā d a as a Vedāntist accept it when his Brahman in his own word (III. 33) is eternal (nitya)? Nevertheless, in the present case, G a u d a pā d a seems to have accepted the middle theory, for, as the case is put here, there may not be raised any objection. Or it may be that G a u d a pā d a has here simply mentioned the views

<sup>29</sup> Even such words as Brahman and Atman are not to be found there;

of the Buddhists as he has done it in some other cases in this Book. For instance, see IV. 90.

It is a very striking fact that some of the most remarkable doctrines as discussed and established by Gaudapāda have not been appreciated in subsequent works on the Vedanta even of the Advaita school: for instance, the peculiar conception of Brahman, the Ajātivāda, the Sarvajñatvavāda (IV. 85, 89) and the Vijñānavāda, besides what Gaudapāda approves of the views of the Advayavadins or Buddhists in Book IV. Even the great Sankara himself does not appear to subscribe to the above doctrines of our teacher. It need not, however, be said that his Māyāvāda has undoubtedly got strong impetus from the first three Books of the AS. His Adhyāsavāda as explained by him in his Sārīrakabhāsya and other works has no mention in the ĀŚ, though a distant relationship may be found out. Here he is undoubtedly influenced by the Buddhist Vijñānavādins specially in explaining their doctrine of Trisvabhāva or Trilaķṣaṇa 'three characteristics' (IV. 74, pp. 175 ff).

Of the philosophy of Gaudapāda there is much more that deserves to be discussed separately, but in order to avoid prolixity readers are referred to the text itself, specially to its Book IV together with the new Annotation of the present writer, in which he has tried to explain many an important and hitherto obscure point of the work. From this, it is hoped, readers will be in a position to form their own judge-

ments as to how much Gaudapāda is influenced by Buddhist thoughts and how much of them he has adopted into his own system of the Vedānta.<sup>30</sup>

One may consider here the following words in the Bhāvaprakāša (TM, Vol. [], p. 415) referring to AS, IV. 11-23:

nanu māṇḍūkyakārikāsu Gauḍapādācāryaih mādhyamikoktayuktibhiḥ kāryakaraṇa- (for wrongly printed *kāryākāraṇa*) bhāvasya sāṃvṛtatvaṃ st**hā**pitam.

## BOOK I

1

bahiṣprajño vibhur viśvo hy antaḥprajñas tu taijasaḥ l ghanaprajñas tathā prājña eka eva tridhā sthitah ll

'The all-pervading one is  $Vi \acute{s} va$  'all' when he has the consciousness of outside; he is Taijasa 'brilliant' when he has the consciousness of inside and when his consciousness is concentrated he is  $Pr\bar{a}j\bar{n}a$  'intelligent'. The one exists in three forms.'

Literally 'condensed' (ghana), in other words, when consciousness does not admit of any distinction within itself, as is the case in wakefulness and in dream.

2 See I. 2

2

dakṣiṇākṣimukhe viśvo manasy antas tu taijasaḥ l ākāśe ca hṛdi prājñas tridhā dehe vyavasthitaḥ I

'Viśva is in the front of the right eye, within the mind is Taijasa, while Prajña is in the sky in the heart.<sup>2</sup> Thus he remains in the body in three ways.'<sup>3</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> KtU, IV. 17; MU, VII. 11; ChU, IV. 15. 1, VII. 7. 4; BU, II. 3. 5, IV. 2. 2, V. 5. 2, 4.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> BU, II. 1, 17, IV. 2, 3.

<sup>3</sup> See pp. lxxxxiv-lxxxxviii and I. 3.

3.

višvo hi sthūlabhuň nityam taijasah praviviktabhuk t ānandabhuk tathā prājñas tridhā bhogam nibodhata 11

'Viśva enjoys what is gross, Taijasa what is fine, and Prājña bliss. (Thus) know enjoyment to be of three kinds.'

4

sthūlam tarpayate višvam praviviktam tu taijasam l ānandaš ca tathā prājnam tridhā tṛptim nibodhata l

'The gross satisfies Visva, the fine Taijasa, and bliss Prāj ña. (Thus) know satisfaction to be of three kinds.'

5

trișu dhāmasu yad bhojyam bhoktā yaś ca prakīrttitaḥ l vedaitad ubhayam yas tu sa bhuñjāno na lipyate l

'One who knows both what is said to be enjoyable, and what is said to be the enjoyer in three stages, is not tainted through enjoying.'

6

prabhavah sarvabhūtānām satām iti viniścayah I sarvam janayati prāṇaś ceto'mśūn purusah prihak II

'The settled opinion of sages is that all things have their origin. (Some hold that) the Breath, the Puruṣa (self), creates all.-the rays of the mind, differently.'

For the creation by Prana see BS, I. 1. 23. Prana is here Brahman.

The objective world is the vibrations of one's mind (citta-spandita, see IV. 72) which shines inside. These vibrations are called here rays  $(am \acute{s} u)$  and assume different forms just like the rays of the sun on the clouds appearing in the form of the rainbow.

7

vibhūtim prasavam tv anye manyante sṛṣṭicintakāḥ | svapnamāyāsvarūpeti sṛṣṭir anyair vikalpitā ||

'Other theorisers about creation assert dogmatically that the creation (of the world) is (his) expansion, while others imagine that creation is of the nature of dream and magic.'

As in the Upanisads. TU, ll. 6. 1: so 'kāmayata kahu syām prajāyeya.

<sup>3</sup> This view is held by some of the Vedantists including our teacher (see II. 31) and the Buddhists, Mādhyamikas and Yogācāras.

8

icchāmātram prabhoh sṛṣṭir iti sṛṣṭau viniścitāḥ l kālāt prasūtim bhūtānām manyante kālacintakāh l

'Those who are assured about creation say that creation is the mere volition of the Lord,' and those who theorise about Time consider the creation of beings to be from Time.'<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> See note on I.7. Kūranārāyaņa, a follower of Rāmānuja, says that they are Aupanişadas or the followers of the Upanişads, who say He is satyasankalpa 'one whose purpose is true or fulfilled' (ChU, 3.14.2).

They are Astronomers, See SU, 1.1; MU, 7; MB, XII. 224, 227; SS. pp. 10-11 and specially the hymns on Kala in the AV, XIX. 53, 54.

Now as regards the object of the creation the author says:

9

bhogārtham sṛṣṭir ity anye krīḍārtham iti cāpare l devasyaiṣa svabhāvo 'yam āptakāmasya kā spṛhā l

'Some (say) that the creation is for the sake of (his) enjoyment, while others (are of opinion) that it is for the sake of his sport. It is, however, the nature of the Shining One, for how can desire be in one for whom every object of desire is (already) secured.

Kūranārāyana says here in his ţīkā: harer atṛptasyaiva bhogārtham sṛṣṭir ity anye. Śrīnivās atīrt h'a, an annotator of Madhvācārya's commentary on MāU, clearly says that this view is held by Rāmānuja or his followers (kecid rāmānujāh).

- ¹ See BU, 1.4.17; ātmaivedam agra āsid eka eva, so 'kāmayata jāyā me syād atha prajāyeya vittam me syād atha karma kurviyeti.
- <sup>2</sup> See BS, II. 1. 33: lokavat tu lilākaivalyam; MU, VI. 1: višvakrīdāratiprabhuh.
- 3 The second half of the kārikā is quoted as śruti in the Mādhvabhāṣya on BS, II. 1, 33.

## 10

nivitteh sarvaduhkhānām īšānah prabhur avyayah ladvaitah sarvabhāvānām devas turyo vibhuh smrtah l

'The Turya 'fourth one' is said to be all-pervading, efficient in removing all miseries, the shining one, changeless, and of all things without a second.'

The other three are already mentioned: Viśva, Taijasa and Prājña.

11:

käryakāraṇabaddhau tāv isyete viśvataijasau ! prājñaḥ kāraṇabaddhas tu dve tu turye na sidhyataḥ #

'It is held that those two, Viśva and Taijasa, are bound with cause and effect, Prājña is bound with cause, but in Turya neither of them can be asserted.'

Here according to the commentator 'cause' (kāraṇa) is non-grasping of the truth (tattvāgrahaṇa), while 'effect' (kārya) is grasping the truth otherwise (anyathāgrahaṇa). See I. 15. These two are common to both Viśva and Taijasa. In Prājña there is only tattvāgrahaṇa, 'while in Turya there is neither of them, Cf. PS¹, 31; PS², 34, 35.

This kārikā is quoted in the NSi, IV. 41.

12

nātmānam na parāms caiva na satyam nāpi cānṛtam l prājnaḥ kincana samvetti turīyaḥ sarvadṛk² sadā l

'Prājña knows nothing—neither himself nor others, neither truth nor falsehood; but Turīya is always all-seeing.'

As to why Prājña is bound with cause (tattvāgrahaṇa) and Turīya is not bound with either of cause and effect (anyathāgrahaṇa) is stated in the following kārikā.

<sup>1.</sup> See BU, IV. 3. 21.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See IV. 84; Cf. sarvajña, III. 36, 47.

As Prājña does not know anything he is regarded as bound with the cause (tattvāgrahaṇa) which is just like darkness (tamas). As regards Turīya there being nothing except himself he is all-seeing and thus in the absence of all ignorance he is not bound in any way.

3 See US. XVIII. 26.

13

dvaitasyāgrahaṇaṃ tulyam ubhayoḥ prājñaturyayoḥ l bījanidrāyutaḥ prājñaḥ sā ca turye na vidyate II

'Non-recognition of duality is common to both Prājña and Turya; but Prājña is with sleep which is a seed (i.e., cause of specific cognition), while it does not exist in Turya.'

In this kārikā the difference between Prājña and Turya is shown. In the text nidrā 'sleep' implies tattvāpratibodha 'non-realization of truth' (l. 15), and as it is the cause of specific cognition in dream and waking it is called bīja 'seed'.

14

svapnanidrāyutāv ādyau prājūas tv asvapnanidrayā l na nidrām naiva ca svapnam turye pasyanti niscitāl l

'The first two (Visva and Taijasa) are with sleep and dream, Prājña is with dreamless sleep, while those who are certain (about the truth) see neither sleep nor dream in Turya.'

It follows, therefore, from the above that. Tury a is not bound either with cause or with effect.

<sup>1</sup> Dream (svapna) is 'knowing otherwise' (anyathāgrahaṇa) and sleep (nidrā), as said before, is 'non-cognition of truth' (tattvāpratibodha). See I.15.

15

janyathā grhņatah svapno nidrā' tattvam ajānatah l viparyāse tayoh kṣīṇe turīyam padam aśnute l²

'Dream is for him who takes the truth otherwise, and sleep is for him who does not know the Reality. The error in these two (svapna and nidrā) being destroyed one attains the stage of Turīya.'

1 See YS, I. 10.

<sup>2</sup> See NSi, IV. 42; US, xviii. 26,

16

anādimāyayā supto yadā jīvah prabudhyate !
ajam anidram asvapnam advaitam budhyate tadā "

'When the Jiva sleeping on account of illusion' which has no beginning is awakened, he realizes (the state of Turya) which is unborn and in which there is neither sleep nor dream, nor duality.'

## 17

prapañco:yadi vidyeta nivarteta na saṃśayaḥ l māyāmātram idaṃ dvaitam advaitaṃ paramārthataḥ II

'If the expansion of the (visible) universe (prapañca) were (really) existing it would have to cease to exist, no doubt, but this duality is mere illusion, in absolute truth there is non-duality.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The commentator says that this māyā is in the form of tattvāpratibodha and anyathāgrahaņa.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See 1. 14, III. 36, IV. 81.

For the meaning of prapañca see Candrakirtti on MV, p. 350:

te ca vikalpā anādimatsaṃsārābhyastāj jñānajñeya-vācya-vācaka-kartīkarmakriyā-ghaṭa-paṭa-mukuṭa-ratha-rūpa-vedanā-strī-puruṣa-lābhālābha-sukha-duḥkha-yaśo-yaśo-nindā-praśaṃsādi-lakṣa-nād vicitrāt prapañcād upajāyante.

Op. cit., p. 373:

prapañco hi väk prapañcayaty arthan iti kṛtvā.

18

vikalpo vinivarteta kalpito yadi kenacit I upadeśād ayam vādo jñāte dvaitam na vidyate II

'False creation (vikalpa)<sup>1</sup> would cease if it were created<sup>2</sup> by some one. This statement (of vikalpa) is for the sake of instruction. When (the Reality) is known there is no duality.'

It means that if it is held, as we hold, that the vikalpa (=prapañca in the preceding kārikā) 'false creation', i.e., duality, is made by some onc it must disappear. We say that it is said so in order to instruct the ignorant or stupid people, so that they may gradually arrive at the truth (ajñānām avabodhārtham.—YV, III. 84.24). This will be clear from YV (III. 84.19-27), from which a few lines are quoted below.

The second half of the kārikā is identical with YV. III. 84.25a and 27b with the single variation that in 26a there is avibodhād for our upadeśād. The reading avibodhād, however, seems to have actually been avabodhād. See the following from YV, III.84:

upadeśāya śāstreṣu jātaḥ śabdo'thavārthajaḥ l pratiyogivyavacchedasaṃkhyālakṣaṇapakṣavān || 19 bhedo dṛśyata evāyaṃ vyavahārān na vāstavaḥ l vetālo bālakasyeva kāryārthaṃ parikalpitaḥ || 20

<sup>1</sup> That is, duality which is only imaginary.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Lit. imagined.

emmādimayī mithyāsankalpakalpanā matā i ajñānām avabodhārtham na tu bhedo 'sti vastuni i 24 avibodhād ayam vādo jñāte dvaitam na vidyate i jñāte samśāntakalanam maunam evāvasiṣyate i 25 vivadante hy asambudhāh svavikalpavijīmbhitaih i upadeśād ayam vādo jñāte dvaitam na vidyate i 27

In a of the kārikā KN reads na nivarteta for vinivarteta. Accordingly it would give the following meaning: vikalpa would not cease if it is created by some one, but the fact is not so, for it is mentioned only for one's instruction. KN, however, e. plains it differently.

19

viśvasyātvavivakṣāyām ādi sāmānyam utkaṭam t mātrāsampratipattau syād āptisāmānyam eva ca 11

'In the desire of saying that V is v a is A and in knowing the measure the common quality 'first'  $(\bar{a}di)$  as well as 'pervading'  $(\bar{a}pti)$  is quite apparent.'

Ātman is to be meditated through the symbol Om, and for doing so these two must be regarded as identical. This identification of Ātman and Om is described in this and the following two kārikās. In the present kārikā the first part (pāda) of Ātman, viz., Viśva, is identified with the first part or measure (mātrā) of Om, viz., the letter A. It is to be noted that Om results from the euphonic combination of the three letters (mātrās), A, U and M. In such identification there must be some common quality (sāmānya dharma) of the things to be

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> That is, in knowing the identity of the first matra of Om, i.e., A, with the first pada of Atman, i.e., V i s v a. See I, 20, 21, note I.

meditated as identical.<sup>2</sup> In the present case there are two common qualities, 'first' (ādi) and 'pervading' (āpti). As Viśva is the first of the four pādas of Ātman, so A is the first of all the letters of which Om is composed. And, again, as the reward of one who understands this identity of Viśva and A is far-reaching (for one attains thereby everything that one may desire), so is far-reaching A, for, as said in the śruti, A is all speech, as it manifests itself in different letters.<sup>3</sup>

- <sup>2</sup> See bhaktivāda in Vedic texts; Nirukta, VII. 24: bahubhaktivādīni brāhmaṇāni bhavanti; and the present writer's Vedic Interpretation and Tradition in the Proceedings of the Sixth Oriental Conference held at Patna, p. 498.
- <sup>3</sup> Sā ya na says in his commentary on the TA, VII: etad apy aitareyake samāmnātam akāro vai sarvā vāk. saiṣā sparśoṣmabhir vyajyamānā bahvī nānārupā bhavati. This passage is quoted by commentators on the BG, X. 33. See AĀ. III. 2.3 with Sā ya na: tasyaitasyākāro rasaḥ.

## 20

taijasasyotvavijñāna utkarşo dṛśyate sphuṭam I mātrāsampratipattau syād ubhayatvaṃ tathāvidham II

'In understanding that T a i j a s a is (the letter) U and in knowing the measure, the common quality 'subsequence' (utkarsa) as well as the state of being in (the middle of) both (ubhayatva) is clearly seen.'

The common qualities required for identification of Taijasa with U are utkarşa 'subsequence' and ubhayatva which is the same as madhyasthatva 'intermediate position.'

1 That is, in understanding that the second mātrā of Om, i.e., U, and the second pāda of Ātman, i.e., Taijasa, are identical. See I, 19, note 1. and 21, note 1.

Taijasa is subsequent to  $Vi\acute{s}va$  and U is subsequent to A; therefore there is utkarsa. Taijasa and U both are in the middle being between  $Vi\acute{s}va$  and  $Pr\bar{a}j\tilde{n}a$  and A and M respectively.

21

makārabhāve prājñasya mānasāmānyam utkaṭam t mātrāsampratipattau tu layasāmānyam eva ca 1

'In the identity of  $Pr\bar{a}j\bar{n}a$  with (the letter) M and in understanding the measure the clear common quality is 'measure'  $(m\bar{a}na)$  as well as 'disappearance' (laya).'

The commentator's explanation of the kārikā, as I understand it, is as follows: In involution Viśva and Taijasa enter into Prājña, while in evolution they come out of it; and as such they, as it were, are measured with Prājña, just as grains of barley are measured with prastha 'a special standard of measure,' generally a basket made of bamboo or cane of particular capacity. In measuring the grains they are first put into the basket and then they are taken out. Now as Visva and Taijasa enter into and come out of Prājāa, so in pronouncing Om continually, A and U. as it were, merge into and emerge from M. This is the first common quality, called 'measure' (mana) for the identification of Prāiña and M. The second common quality called 'disappearance' (laya) is this: In susupti 'profound, deep and undisturbed sleep' Viśva and Taijasa disappear in Prājña. Similarly in pronouncing Om, A and U seem to disappear in M.

#### 22

trișu dhāmasu yas tulyam sāmānyam vetti niścitah l sa pūjyah sarvabhūtānām vandyaś caiva mahāmunih l

'One who knows what is equal and common in the three stages and is certain (about it) is a great sage worthy of veneration and praise of all beings.'

#### 23

akāro nayate viśvam ukāraś cāpi taijasam I makāraś ca punah prājñam nāmātre vidyate gatih II

'A leads to Viśva, U to Taijasa, and M to Prājña; there is no going to that which has no measure (mātrā)."

This is the consequence of one's meditating upon the symbol Om consisting of three mātrās, A, U and M. The last pāda of the kārikā speaks of the consequence of the meditation on 'the fourth' (Turya). In this state none is led to anywhere, it itself being the cessation of all duality (dvaitasya upaśamah).<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> That is, Turya.

<sup>2</sup> See I. 29.

#### 24

onkāram pādašo vidyāt pādā mātrā na samsayah I onkāram pādašo jñātvā na kiñcid api cintayet II

'One should understand Om with each of the pādas 'quarters'; no doubt, the pādas are the mātrās 'measures.'

1 It is said in the original Up, 8: pādā mātrā mātrās ca pādāh, which means that the quarters (pādas) of ātmen are to be regarded as identical with the measures (mātrās) of Om.

And having understood Om with each of the pādas one should not think of anything else. 2

<sup>2</sup> For d cf. BG, VI. 25: ātmasaṃsthaṃ manaḥ kṛtvā na kiñcid api cintayet. See BP, II. 1.19.

# 25

yuñjīta praņave cetah praņavo brahma nirbhayam | praņave nityayuktasya na bhayam vidyate kvacit ||

'One should apply<sup>1</sup> the mind to Om, for Om is Brahman in whom there is no fear. And nowhere is fear for him who is always fixed<sup>2</sup> upon Om.'

- 1 That is, concentrate.
- <sup>2</sup> That is, whose mind is always fixed.

# 26 ...

praṇavo hy aparam brahma praṇavaś ca param smṛtaḥ l apūrvo 'nantaro 'bāhyo 'naparaḥ praṇavo 'vyayaḥ l

'Om is said to be the lower, as well as the higher Brahman. Om is without any antecedent and unchanging, and it has nothing other than itself, nor has it inside or outside.'

1 BU, IV. 5. 83 : anantaro'bāhyaḥ.

## 27

sarvasya praṇavo hy ādir madhyam antas tathaiva ca levam hi praṇavam jñātvā vyaśnute tad anantaram l

'Om is the beginning, middle, and end of all. Having known Om in this way one attains it immediately.'

Original tad. It seems to refer to Brahman in the preceding kārikā. The commentator takes it to refer to ātmabhāva.

28

praṇavaṃ hīśvaraṃ vidyāt sarvasya hṛdi saṃsthitam¹ l sarvavyāpinam oṅkāraṃ matvā dhīro na śocati² ll

'One should know Om to be the Lord present in the heart of all. Having understood the all-pervading Om a wise man does not grieve.'

BG, XIII. 17: hidi sarvasya dhisihitam; KU, II. 3. 17: sadā janānām hidaye sannivistah.

<sup>2</sup> KU, I. 2. 22; II. 1. 4, 3. 6.

#### 29

amātro 'nantamātras ca dvaitasyopasamaḥ sivaḥ l oṅkāro vidito yena sa munir netaro janaḥ l

iti gaudapādīya āgamaśāstra āgamākhyam prathamam prakaraņam samāptam.

'He and no other person is a sage (muni)<sup>1</sup> who knows Om which has no measure, and yet has an unlimited measure, and which is the cessation of duality, and which is bliss.'

'Here ends, in the Āgamaśāstra of G a u ḍ a p ā ḍ a, Book One, called Traditional Doctrine.'

1 I. 22.

## BOOK II

1

vaitathyam sarvabhāvānām svapna āhur manīṣiṇah t antaḥsthānāt tu bhāvānām samvṛtatvena hetunā ii

'The wise say that all things in a dream are unreal, for they are within owing to the fact that they are enclosed.'

See II. 4, IV. 33.

Things such as mountains, elephants, etc., which are seen in a dream are not outside but inside the body. But as in reality they cannot exist within the body they must be regarded as unreal. Literally the kārikā means that owing to the fact that the things in a dream are enclosed (samorta) they are inside (antaḥśthāna), and hence they are unreal (vitatha). But it will be evident from kārikā IV. 33 in which this very thought is expressed in almost identical words, that the state of being enclosed (samortatva) is not with reference to things (bhūtas), but to the place (pradeśa). This explanation of the author himself may rightly be accepted here and also in kārikā II. 4. See II. 2.

That the things seen in a dream are inside the body is explained in the following  $k\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$ :

2

adırghatvac ca kalasya gatva desan na pasyati I pratibuddhas ca vai sarvas tasmin dese na vidyate I 'The time being not long one does not see the things dreamt) by going to (different) places; and no person, on waking, is in the place (where he dreamt himself to be).'

It cannot be held that in a dream one goes to different places and sees things in those places, for one may see things in a dream in a very distant land, but the time being short it is impossible to think that the dreamer travels to that distant land and sees the things there. Moreover, it is found that a dreamer, on waking, does not see himself in the country where he dreamt himself to be.

Thus it follows that the things seen in a dream do not exist in the external world.

La support of this view the author refers in the next kārikā to tl e BU, IV. 3. 10:

3

abhāvas ca rathādīnām srūyate nyāyapūrvakam ! vaitathyam tena vai prāptam svapna āhuḥ prakāsitam !!

'The non-existence of chariots, etc. (seen in a dream), with the reason therefor, is learnt from the śruti.<sup>1</sup> Therefore, it is

<sup>1</sup> See BU, IV. 3. 10 which runs as follows: na tatra rathā na rathayogā na panthāno bhavanty atha rathān rathayogān pathaḥ srjate. In this passage tatra refers to svapna. See also IV. 3. 13:

svapnānta uccāvacam īyamāno rūpāņi devah kurute bahūni! uteva strībhih saha modamāno jakṣad utevāpi bhayāni paśyan []

As regards the nyāya 'reason' referred to here, Purus ottama writes: svapnānta uccāvacamīyamāna—iti mantreņānekarūpakaraņam uktvā tasmān nāyatam bodhayed durbhisajyam hāsmai bhavatity anena suptasya nirbandhena jāgaraņe kastam āha yady anyatra gato bhavet tatkaraņam na vaded (?) durbhaisajyam ca. yatra suptas tatraiva striyā svapne ramamāṇaḥ skhalite jāgrat tām bahiḥ pasyet. yato na 'pasyati tataḥ karoti. yataḥ karoti tato rathādyabhāvaḥ. evam ca svapne pūrvam rathādyabhāvaḥ pascāt karaṇād ityādinyāyapūrvakam.

said that the unreality (of things seen) in a dream, as follows (from the foregoing arguments), is evident.'

In the next kārikā the author proceeds to show the unreality of things in the waking state also applying the same reasons:

4

antahsthānāt tu bhedānām tathā jāgarite smṛtam l yathā tatra tathā svapne samvṛtatvam na bhidyate<sup>1</sup> l

'The same 2 is declared of the things 3 in waking on account

1 The actual reading of d in all printed texts and MSS, examined is samurtatuena bhidyate which hardly gives any proper sense. The commentary does not help us on this point. It explains: antabsthanat samvitatvena ca svapnadršyānām bhāvānām jāgraddršyebhyo bhedah—'on account of being inside as well as of being covered the phenomena in a dream are different from those in waking.' But this explanation is hardly possible, for one naturally expects here to know the non-difference (abheda) and not the difference between the things in waking and in dream. Accordingly one might disjoin the sandhi in jāgraddršyebhyo bhedaḥ in the commentary taking the last word as abhedaḥ and not bhedah, though Anandagiri evidently accepts the latter. Apart from the propriety of that explanation the question is: How should one construe the second half of the karika? What is the nominative of the verb bhidyate? According to the commentator it must be svapnadršya bhāva, but it is not in the text, nor can it be understood or supplied from any of the preceding kārikās.

One may, however, take the line as samortative na bhidyate. In this case the nominative is vaitathya 'unreality' which is to be supplied from the preceding kārikā. The author wants here to show the unreality of the phenomena in the waking state just like that of those in a dream on the same ground, i.e., antaḥsthāna which is due to samortativa of the place. Thus it is said that the vaitathya of the things in waking does not differ from that of the things in a dream, for in both the cases samortativa is the same, there being no difference whatsoever.

- 2 That is, vaitathyam already described in the preceding kārikā.
- 3 The words bhūta (IV. 33), bhāva.(II. 13, 16, 17, 19, 33; III. 20, 22), and bheda (II. 4, 5, 11, 12) are the same as regards the meaning.

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of the fact that they are inside; for, as there (i.e., in waking) so in a dream the state of being enclosed does not differ.'4

See II. 1, IV. 33.

I should, however, like to suggest the reading as samortatvam na bhidyate which makes the sense very clear.

As to how the state of being enclosed (samvitatva) does not differ in waking and dream, is discussed and shown in some of the following kārikās (II. 9, 10, 13, 14, 15; III. 29, 30; IV. 61, 62, 64-66), where it is fully explained, as the Vijñānavādins would say, that there being no external thing in reality, whatever we see around us either in waking or in dream is only imagined (kalpita) by mind which is inside our body and inside of a body is covered (samvita). Says Dinnāga in his Ālambanaparīkṣā, 6: yad anter jūeyarūpam tad bahirvad avabhāsate.

Purus ottama writes here: jägarita iti. bahir anubhavät katham antahsthatvam ity äkänksäyäm svapnatulyatväd iti vaktum svapnasyaitattaulyam äha yathä tatreti. yathä jägarite manodhyäto rthah sarirasamvitatvena bähyebhyo bhidyata iti sariräntahsthatvam tathä svapne pi pürvam uktam. atas tattulyatvät tathety arthah.

<sup>1</sup> The commentary reads in explaining the kārikā:

jāgraddīsyēnām bhāvānām vaitathyam iti pratijāā. dīsyatvād iti hetuh. svapnadīsyabhāvavad iti dīstāntah, yathā tatra svapne dīsyānām bhāvānām vaitathyum tathā jāgarite 'pi dīsyatvam avisistam iti hetūpanayah, tasmāj jāgarite 'pi vaitathyam smītam iti nigamanam.

Now the author goes to show further in the next kārikā that there is no difference between the two states, waking and dream; in fact they are one:

5

svapnajāgarite sthāne hy ekam āhur manīṣiṇaḥ l bhedānāṃ hi samatvena prasiddhenaiva hetunā II

'The wise say that the two states, dream and waking, are

one, on account of the identity of things (in those two states), for the reason that has been well established.'

The first half of the kārikā refers to BU, IV. 3. 14:

atho khalv āhur jāgaritadeśa evāsyāisa iti yāni hy eva jāgrat pasyati tāni supta iti.

Here eşah refers to svapna, as says Sankara: eşah svapnah.

For svapnajāgarite sthāne cf. BU, IV. 3. 9: dve eva sthāne bhavataḥ.

'The reason that has been well established' (prasiddhenaiva hetunā) refers to antahsthāna already explained (II. 1, 4),

Though in fact the objects of waking experience appear as real, still they are unreal. How it may be so the author proceeds to say in the following kārikās:

6

ādāv ante ca yan nāsti vartamāne'pi tat tathā l vitathaiḥ sadṛśāḥ santo'vitathā iva lakṣitāḥ l

See IV. 31.

'That which is non-existent at the beginning, and at the end, is so also at the present (i.e., in the middle); being like the unreal<sup>1</sup> things still appear as not unreal<sup>2</sup>;

For a full discussion see IV. 31, which is identical with the present kārikā.

1 That is, being like mirage, etc., which are acknowledged to be unreal by all.

7

saprayojanatā teṣāṃ svapne 'pi pratipadyate' tasmād ādyantavattvena mithyaiva khalu te smṛtāḥ #

 $^1$  The reading of b generally found in editions and MSS, examined is svapne vipratipedyate; but as the sense requires it should be svapne prati-

'that the things have some purpose also in dream is known. Hence owing to their having a beginning and an end, indeed, they are regarded as unreal.'

For particulars see IV. 32 which is a repetition of the present kārikā.

padyate which is actually found in a MS., D<sup>2</sup>. in IV. 32 which is identical with the present kārikā. Here. too, MS. Vn. reads scapne ca prati°. It is supported also by MS. Ch (蚕) of the Comm. in Ānandāsrama ed. which has scapne prati° for scapne viprati°.

8

apūrvāḥ sthānidharmā hi yathā svarganivāsinām t tān ayam prekṣate gatvā yathaiveha suśikṣitaḥ II

'(The phenomena of dream) are strange, like (the characteristics) of the inhabitants of the heaven; they are the characteristics of the person in the place (of dream, i.e., the dreamer himself). Just like one who is well trained here, he goes and sees them (in dream).'

I confess this kārika is not quite clear to me. I simply write what I have been able to gather from it in the light of the commentator.

It is to be noted that in a I suggest the reading apūrvāḥ sthānidharmāḥ for apūrvaṃ sthānidharmaḥ, so that the former can be connected with tān in c. For other readings see the commentary and the Appendix.

The kārikā seems to say as follows: The phenomena of dream, on the analogy of which the objects of the waking experience are held to be unreal, are sometimes strange, as the characteristics of some gods, such as the thousand eyes of Indra, and this is the nature of the dreamer (sthānin 'one in the place' of dream) himself. And just as a man who is

well trained goes to a place and sees there strange things, so he sees strange things in a dream.

The next two kārikās seek to establish the unreality of dream and waking experience alike:

9

svapnavṛttāv api tv antaś cetasā kalpitam tv asat l bahiś cetogṛhītam sad dṛṣṭam vaitathyam etayoḥ II

'Even in the state of dream that which is imagined by mind within is (regarded as) non-existing (asat), while that which is cognized by mind without is (regarded as) existing (sat); (but) the unreality of (both of) them is a matter of experience.'

10

jāgradvīttāv api tv antaš cetasā kalpitam tv asat l bahiš cetogrhītam sad yuktam vaitathyam etayoh l

'In the waking state also, that which is imagined by mind within is regarded as non-existing (asat), while that which is cognized by mind without is regarded as existing, (sat); the unreality of (both of) them is reasonable.'

Cf. these two kārikās with IV. 63-66.

The opponent here says that it cannot be said that everything in the waking experience and dream is unreal, for there must be at least one thing real without which we cannot go on: 14

cittakālās ca ye 'ntas tu dvayakālās ca ye bahiḥ t kalpitā eva te sarve viseso nānyahetukaḥ t

'Those which are within and exist as long as exists the thought (citta), and those which are without and exist as long as remains (the notion of) the two (i.e., grāhya 'perceptible' and grāhaka 'percipient'), are all merely imagined. And (in this respect) there is no difference on any other ground.'

For dvaya see III. 29, 30; IV. 4, 24, 61, 62, 72, 75, 87.

That in such cases dvaya 'twofold' means grāhya and grāhaka, 'perceptible' and 'percipient' respectively, is quite clear from the words of the author himself (IV. 72b): grāhyagrāhakavad dvayam. It is also well known throughout the Buddhist literature, for instance, MS, XIV. 28 (p. 94):

dvayagrāhavisaṃyuktaṃ lokottaram anuttaram ( nirvikalpaṃ malāpetaṃ jāānam sa labhate punaḥ ॥

°dvayagrāhavisaṃyuktaṃ grāhyagrāhagrāhakagrāhavisaṃyogāt. Op. cit. Xl. 32 (p. 63):

svadhātuto dvayābhāsāḥ sāvidyākleśavṛttayaḥ! vikalpāḥ sampravartante dvayadravyavivarjitāḥ II

°dvayābhāsā iti grāhyagrāhakābhāsāh. dvayadravyavivarjitā iti grāhyadravyena grāhakadravyena ca.

See also the following quoted from the Āryadṛḍhā-śayaparipṛcchā in MV, p. 463:

na hi kulaputra dvayaprabhāvitā tathāgatadharmatā tatra ye dvaye caranti na te samyakprayuktā mithyāprayuktās te vaktavyāḥ katamac ca kulaputra dvayam. aham rāgam prahāsyāmīti dvayam etat. aham dveṣam prahāsyāmīti dvayam etat. aham moham prahāsyāmīti dvayam etat.

TS, 3,538:

prakṛtyā bhāsvare citte dvayākārākalaṅkite I dvayākārāvimūḍhātmā kaḥ kuryād anyathāmatiḥ (tim) II dvayākārāvimūḍhātmeti prahīnagrāhyagrāhakābhiniveśah.

—Pañjikā.

Though both of the experiences, i.e., the experiences in dream and waking, are mere imaginations, and as such are not different, yet there is some difference between them with regard to the means of their cognition. This is shown in the next kārikā:

15

avyaktā eva ye 'antas tu sphuṭā eva ca ye bahiḥ l kalpitā eva te sarve viśeṣas tv indriyāntare l

'Those which are unmanifest within and those which are manifest without are all imagined indeed, but there is some difference owing to the difference of the organs of sense (with which they are cognized).'

The experiences of dream being related only to the mind (manomātrasambandhāt) are unmanisest (avyakta=asphuṭa); while those of waking being related to external senses, such as eyes, etc. (cakṣurādibhir indriyasambandhāt) are manisest (sphuṭa). Hence it is to be admitted that there is some difference between them. But this difference is not due to any reality (astitvakṛta) of external things; for the phenomena of dream, too, appear for the time being to be as real as those of waking. Therefore this difference lies in the fact that while the things within are cognized by mind, those without are cognized by external senses. The following line of Ānandagiri is to be noted here specially: ye manasy antarbhāvanārūpatvād asphuṭā ye ca manaso bahir upalabhyamānāḥ sphuṭā bhavanti te sarve manaḥspandanamātratvena

kalpitāḥ. Mark here manaḥspandana and compare the views of the Vijñānavādins which will be more and more evident as we proceed. See IV. 72.

The creation of internal and external things are effected thus:

#### 16

jīvam kalpayate pūrvam tato bhāvān pṛthagvidhān l bāhyān ādhyātmikāṃś caiva yathāvidyas tathāsmṛtiḥ !!

'First one' imagines a personal soul (jīva)<sup>2</sup>, and then various things,<sup>3</sup> external and internal.<sup>4</sup> As one knows so one recollects.'

Mark that it is a personal soul (jīva) that is first imagined, and then the other things. And it is so, because the imagination of the latter depends entirely on that of the former. Says the commentator (II. 17): jīvakalpanā sarvakalpanāmūlam 'the imagination of jīva is the root of other imaginations.' This imagination of a personal soul is what is called satkāyadṛṣṭi 's or svakāyadṛṣṭi (MK. XXIII. 5), Pali sakkāyadṭṭṭhi, 'theory of individuality' in Buddhism. It is generally known as ātmadṛṣṭi. Pali attadṭṭṭhi, or ātmavāda. Pali attavāda. This satkāyadṛṣṭi is fourfold: thinking that (i) rūpa (so also vedanā, saṃjāā,

<sup>1</sup> It refers to atman 'self,' II. 12, 13.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> ātman, sattva, jīva, jantu. purusa, pudgala, etc.. are synonyms, MVt<sup>1</sup>, § 207; Abhidhānappadīpikā, 93; SS, pp. 172, 236; NS, Commentary, I. 1.2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Such as prāṇa 'breath,' etc., See II.19-28.

<sup>4</sup> MS, XI,5 (p. 55): tatra grāhakabhūtam kāyādikam ādhyātmikam grāhyabhūtam bāhyam. See also Vācaspati Mišra on the Sāṅkhyakārikā, I.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> See ZDMG, Vol. 64, pp. 581 ff; AK, V. 7; The Basic Conception of Buddhism, pp. 77 ff,

saṃskāra and vijñāna) is ātman, (ii) ātman has rūpa, (iii) rūpa is in ātman, and (iv) ātman is in rūpa <sup>6</sup>

This satkāyadṛṣṭi is the source of all sorts of miseries in the world and consequently their cessation is effected only by giving it up (MK, XVIII, 2; MV. pp. 346,361; \$5, p. 247).

As to how the imagination of all other things is dependent on the satkāyadṛṣṭi the following may be quoted from the BAP. pp. 491-92:

tathā hy ātmānam pasyatah samskitesu skandhadhātv āyatanesv aham iti didhataram utpadyate snehah tatas tadduḥkhapratikārecchayā sukhābhilāsī doṣān pracchādya tadarthitayā guṇādhyāropāt tatsādhanesu pravartate svopakāriņi vayam iti buddhir upajāyate aham mameti ca darśanāt paripanthini vidveṣaḥ tataḥ samastaduḥkhanidānam sarva eva kleśopaklesā labdhaprasārāḥ pravartante. ity ātmamohapravartito duḥkhahetur ahankāro bhavati tad uktam ācāryapādaiḥ:

yah pasyaty atmanam tatrasyaham iti sasvatasnehah i snehat sukhesu tisyati tisna dosams tiraskurute i gunadarsa paritisyan mameti tatsadhanany upadatte tenatmabhiniveso yavat tavat sa samsarah i atmani sati parasamina svaparavibhagat parigrahadvesau i anayoh sampratibaddhah sarve dosah prajayante i

6 To mention only a few see DSn, pp. 182-183, § 1003; MN, I, 300; SN, III. 16 ff. 42, 44, 46, 56, 102, etc; MVt², § 208: rūpam ātmā svāmivat, rūpavān ātmā alankāravat, ātmīyam rūpam bhṛtyavat, rūpe ātmā bhājanavat. The following may be quoted here which refutes the above view:

rūpam nātmā rūpavān naiva cātmā rūpe nātmā rūpam ātmany asac ca |

This is quoted in SS, p. 20; MV, p. 355.

<sup>7</sup> These stanzas are from PV, II. 217-19. BAP reads tasyātrāha° for tatrāsyāha°, paritṛṣan for °tṛṣyan and tu for sa in kārikā 1°, 2° and 2° respectively. The last verse is quoted in AAA, p. 67; NK, p. 279. Ct. the views

yāthāvidyas tathāsmṛtiḥ 'as one knows so one recollects' implies here that one's imagination of different things follows the recollection of one's experience.

of the Kāpilas (Sāṃkhyas) quoted here. See Aniruddha's Vitti on the SāS, V 79; JA, 1902, Sept.-Oct., p. 291, AK, IX 230:

sāhaṅkāre manasi na śamaṃ yāti janmaprabandho nāhaṅkāraś calati hṛdayād ātmadṛṣṭau tu satyām ! anyaḥ śāstā jagati ca yato nāsti nairātmyavādī nānyas tasmād upaśamavidhes tvanmatād asti mārgaḥ !

See also the Basic Conception of Buddhism, p. 72.

#### 17

aniścitā yathā rajjur andhakāre vikalpitā I sarpadhārādibhir bhāvais tadvad ātmā vikalpitaḥ II

'As in the dark a rope which is not determinately known is imagined to be a snake or a continuous line of water, tetc., so is imagined the soul (ātman=jīva).'2

- 1 See note 2.
- <sup>2</sup> In the commentary on śloka 93 of his Madhyamakālankāra which is now available only in its Tibetan version, Tanjur (Mdo, sa=XXVIII, 52°.1—84° 7; Cordier: III. p. 311). Śāntira kṣita quotes some kārikās from Books Il and III of our work. The following is the Tibetan version of the present kārikā:

ji, Itar. mun. khun. ma. rtogs. te I thag.pa. sbrul gyi.rgyun.la sogs I dnos por.rnam par. brtags pa Itar I de.bžin bdag. kyan rnam.par brtags I

In a Tib. has andhakārabile (mun. khuň) for andhakāre and in b it takes sarpadhārā as sarpasya dhārā (sbrul. gyi. rgyun), and not as sarpa 'snake' and dhārā 'continuous line'.

18

niścitāyām yathā rajjvām vikalpo vinivartate ( rajjur eveti cādvaitam tadvad ātmaviniścayah (

'As the rope being determinately known the thing ima gined vanishes and there is non-duality—it is nothing but the rope, so is the ascertainment of ātman '

According to Tib. 1 the reading rajjur eveti in c is rajjur ekaiva (thag. pa. gcig. ñid), and it appears to be better. In d Tib. literally reads ātmāpi niścitaḥ (bdag. kyan nes pa. yin) for ātmaviniścayaḥ.

1 It runs thus:

ji.ltar. thag.pa nes rtogs na l rnam.par.rtog.pa.ldog.hgyur.te l thag.pa.gcig.ñid gñis.min.pa l de.ltar.bdag.kyan.nes.pa.yin [

19

prāṇādibhir anantais tu bhāvair etair vikalpitaḥ ! māyaiṣā tasya devasya yayāyaṃ mohitaḥ svayam "1".

'It (Ātman) is imagined as Prāṇa 'breath' or 'life' and other innumerable things.<sup>2</sup> This is an illusion of it, the shining one,<sup>3</sup> by which it itself is deluded.'<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup> See II. 12,

- See II. 20 ff.
- 3 See BU, IV. 4. 15: yadaitam anupaśaynty ātmānam devam anjasā.
- 4 The following is the Tib. version:

srog.la.sogs.pa. mthaḥ.yas.paḥi | dnos po.de.dag.rnam.par.bratags | gan.gis.de.bdag.ñid.rmons | de.nì.lha.deḥi.sgyu.ma. yin ||

In c the actual reading is dag for bdag and in d there is rgyu for sgyu. In c there are only six syllables instead of seven. One may, however, add here pa after rmons.

It is said that Ātman is imagined as Prāṇa and such other things. But what these things are is stated in the following kārikās (20-28):

#### 20

prāṇā iti prāṇavido bhūtānīti ca tadvidaḥ 1 guṇā iti guṇavidas tattvānīti ca tadvidaḥ 11

'Those who know prāṇa 'breath' or 'life' (imagine) it as prāṇa; those who know bhūtas 'elements' as bhūtas; those who know guṇas 'ingredients' as guṇas, and those who know tattvas 'categories,' as tattvas.'

The knowers of prāṇa are some followers of Upaniṣads; their view is found in the following: MnU, III. 4: prāṇo hy eṣa yaḥ sarvabhūtair vibhāti; PU. II. 4: prāṇe sarvaṃ pratiṣṭhitam; ChU, I. 11. 4-5; BU, IV. 4. 18; BS, I. 1, 13. Ā n a n d a g i r i says that they are the votaries of Hiraṇyagarbha, ctc., Vaiśeṣikas and others.

The bhūtas 'elements' are nve, viz., earth, water, fire. air and sky (or ether). According to Mādhyamikas and the Sautrāntikas there are only four elements excluding the sky (CS, IX. 3, 5). The Vaibhāṣikas, however, admit it as bhūta (AK, 1.8). Ā n a n d a g i r i says that the view referred to here is held by the Lokāyatikas who maintain that the first four elements are the origin of the world.

## The following is the Tib. version:

srog du. rig.pas.srog.ces brjod I hbyun.po.yin.žes.de.rig.rnams I yon.tan.rig.rnams. yon.tan.sñam I yan.dag.yin. žes. de.rig.rnams I

Tib. yan, dag is generally used for Skt. samyak and sometimes for bhūa; and paramārtha; but it is only here in d, so far as I have noticed, that it is employed for tattva.

The gunas are the three constituent elements of Prakrti of the Sānkhya philosophy, viz., sattva, rajas and tamas.

As regards the tattvas Ānandagiri says that the Saivas are referred to here, according to whom there are three tattvas, viz., ātman, avidyā and Siva.

21

pādā iti pādavido visayā iti tadvidah I lokā iti lokavido devā iti ca tadvidah I

'Those who know pādas 'quarters' (imagine it) as pādas; those who know viṣayas 'objects' as viṣayas ; those who know lokas 'worlds' as lokas; and those who know devas 'gods' as devas.'

Pāda may refer to what is known from such passages as the following: RV. X. 90.3 pādo 'sya viśvā bhūtāni tripād asyāmṛtaṃ divi; ChU, III. 12.6: pādo 'sya sarvā bhūtāni 18.2; vāk pādaḥ prāṇaḥpādaś cakṣuḥ pādo 'gniḥ pādo vāyuḥ pādaḥ; also IV. 6.3, 8.3. Ā says it alludes to the four pādas of ātman, viz., V i ś a, T a i j a s a, etc., described above.

According to \$\overline{A}\$ the viṣayas are the objects of senses (indriyas). They are five, viz., sound (śabda), the tangible (sparśa), colour (rūpa), savour (rasa), and odour (gandha). These are to be enjoyed again and again, and as such are regarded as tattva 'principle'. This view is, as \$\overline{A}\$ tells us, held by \$V\$ \$\overline{a}\$ t s y \$\overline{a}\$ y a n a and others (vātsyayana-prabhṛti). This \$V\$ \$\overline{a}\$ t s y \$\overline{a}\$ y a n a appears to be the author of the \$K\overline{a}\$maś\overline{a}\$stra. By 'others' we may take the Lok\overline{a}\$yatikas and some \$T\overline{a}\$ntrikas, Buddhist and \$Br\overline{a}\$hmanic. See The Basic Conception of Buddhism, pp. 62 ff.; \$S\$, pp. 37 ff.; Cittaviśuddhiprakarana;

Visvabharati, 1933, p. 2. The following is quoted from the last mentioned work:

svādhidaivatayogātmā jagadarthakitodyamaḥ !
bhuñjāno viṣayān bhogī mucyate na ca lipyate # 17
yathaiva viṣatattvajño viṣam ālokya bhakṣayan !
kevalaṃ mucyate nāsau rogamuktaś ca jāyate #

The lokavids are, according to Ā, the followers of the Purāṇas holding that there are three lokas 'worlds,' viz., bhū 'earth', bhuvas (bhuvar) 'atmosphere,' and svar 'heaven.'

The devavids are, as says \$\bar{A}\$, the followers of the Devatā-kāṇḍa, i.e., that part of the Veda (cf. Nighaṇṭu or Nirukta, VII) which deals with devatās 'deities.' They hold that karmaphala 'consequence of action' is given by Devatās, Agni, Indra and others, and not by God.

#### 22

vedā iti vedavido yajñā iti ca tadvidaḥ I bhokteti ca bhoktṛvido bhojyam iti ca tadvidaḥ I

'The knowers of the Vedas (imagine it) as the Vedas, the knowers of yajñas 'sacrifices' as yajñas, the knowers of the bhoktṛ 'enjoyer' as bhoktṛ, and those who know bhojya 'enjoyable' as bhojya.'

According to A yajñavids are Baudhāyana and othere.

The bhoktṛvids are the Sāṅkhyas who maintain that ātman is only enjoyer (bhoktṛ) and not also doer (kartṛ). Or see BG, V. 29: bhoktāraṃ yajñatapasām; IX. 24: bhoktā ca prabhur eva ca; XIII. 22: bhartā bhoktā maheśvaraḥ. See also our text, I. 9.

In accordance with the same authority bhojyavids are the cooks (sūpakāras), for in their opinion food (bhojyaṃ vastu) is the principle. Cf. TU, III. 2-1: annaṃ brahmeti vyajānāt; ChU, I. 3. 6: anne hīdaṃ sarvaṃ sthitam.

23

sūksma iti sūksmavidah sthūla iti ca tadvidah i mūrta iti mūrtavido 'mūrta iti ca tadvidah i

'Those who know what  $s\bar{u}ksma$  'a subtle thing' is (imagine it) as  $s\bar{u}ksma$ , those who know what  $sth\bar{u}la$  'a gross thing' is as  $sth\bar{u}la$ , those who know what  $m\bar{u}rta$  'an embodied thing' is as  $m\bar{u}rta$ , and those who know what  $am\bar{u}rta$  'non-embodied' is as  $am\bar{u}rta$ .'

Sūkṣmavids are those who hold that the dimension of ātman is like that of an atom (aṇu). Accordingly they would refer to all the Vaiṣṇava teachers, such as Rāmānuja, Nimbārka, Madhva, and Vallabha. For the discussion see BS, II. 3. 19-32. See also MuU, III. 1: sūkṣmāc ca tat sūkṣmataṛaṃ vibhāti; 9: eṣo 'ṇur ātmā cetasā veditavyaḥ; MU, II. 5: sa vā eṣa sūkṣmo 'grāhyaḥ.

Sthūlavids refer to a class of Lokāyatikas holding that the gross body is ātman.—Ā.

Mūrtavids are Āgamikas, followers of Āgamas (Śaivas and Vaiṣṇavas). mūrtas triśūlādidhārī maheśvaraś cakrādidhārī vā paramārtho bhavati.—Ā. The following passage (BU, II. 3. 1) may here be cited: dve vāva brahmaņo rūpe mūrtam caivāmūrtam ca.

 $\bar{A}$  says  $Am\bar{u}rtavids$  are  $\hat{S}\bar{u}$ nyav $\bar{a}$ dins. But see the passage quoted above from the BU.

#### 24

kāla iti kālavido diśa iti ca tadvidaļ I vādā iti vādavido bhuvanānīti tadvidaļ II

'Those who know kāla 'time' (imagine it) as kāla, those who know dis-es 'directions' or 'quarters' as dis-es, those who know 1201B.—5

vādas 'discussions' as vādas, and those who know bhuvanas 'worlds' as bhuvanas.'

Kālavids are astronomers. Kāla is the cause of all existence. See AV, XIX. 53, 54; SU, I. 2, VI. 1; SS with Gunaratna, pp. 10 ff.

The knowers of dis-cs, as says A, are svarodayavids, i.e., those who know good or bad omens by voices of birds, etc., holding that the dis-cs are the highest reality.

Vādavids are, according to the same authority, those who hold dhātuvāda 'alchemy', mantravāda 'formulas of sacred texts,' or 'the science of magic,' and so on. Here vāda may, however, refer to 'discussion' as in NS, I. 1.1, 2. 1.

The knowers of bhuvanas are those who know the system of the worlds (bhuvanakośa) and say that there are in all fourteen of them. See ViP, XXXIII-LX (Bhuvanavinyāsa and yotispracāra).

25

mana iti manovido buddhir iti ca tadvidah I cittam iti cittavido dhamādhamau ca tadvidah II

'Those who know manas 'mind' (imagine it) as manas, those who know buddhi 'intellect' as buddhi, those who know citta 'thought' or 'consciousness' as citta, and those who know dharma 'duty' and adharma 'non-duty' as dharma and adharma.'

Ā says that a particular section of the Lokāyatikas who opine that manas is the self (ātman) is referred to by the word manovid, and the knowers of buddhi are Buddhists who maintain that the intellect is the self (ātman). The knowers of citta are evidently Yogācāras or Vijnānavādins. The knowers of dharma and adharma are the Mīmāmsists.

#### 26

# pañcavimsaka ity eke sadvimsa iti cāpare l ekatrimsaka ity āhur ananta iti cāpare l

'Some say it to be consisting of twenty-five, some consisting of twenty-six, some consisting of thirty-one, while others to be endless in number.'

Here pañcavimśaka refers to the opinion of the Sānkhyas, according to whom there are twenty-five tattvas 'principles,' viz., 1. prakṛti, 2. mahat, 3. ahaṅkāra, 4-8. five tanmātras, 9. manas, 10-14. five jñānendriyas, 15-19. five karmendriyas, 20-24. five mahābhūtas, and 25. puruṣa.

By sadvimśa we are to understand the view of Pātañjalas or the followers of the Yoga system. Their tattvas are the same as those of the Sānkhyas enumerated above plus Iśvara, the twenty-sixth.

The word ekatriṃśaka refers to the view held by the Pāśupatas. There are, in fact, thirty-six tattvas, viz., 1. śiva, 2. śakti, 3 sadāśiva, 4. īśvara, 5. vidyā¹, 6. puruṣa, 7. māyā, 8 kāla, 9. niyati, 10. kalā, 11. avidyā², 12. rāga³, 13. prakṛti or avyakṭa, 14. mahat, 15. ahaṅkāra, 16. manas, 17-21. five jñānendriyas, 22-26. five karmendriyas, 27-31. five tanmātras, and 32-36. five bhūtas.⁴

As Nos. 8-12 are merely the manifestations (vibhūtis) of māyā, as said by the commentator of the MM, p. 50, one may

- 1 Nos. 1-5 constitute the tattva called pati.
- 2 This is according to MM, p. 50; but TP, III. 8 clearly reads vidyā and the commentator explains it as aśuddhavidyā.
  - 3 Nos. 6-12 constitute the tattva known as paśu.
- 4 Nos 13-36 are included in the tattva named pāśa See MM, verses 13-25; TP. II 5-11, III. 4, 12.

exclued these five, thus making the number thirty-one as required in our text.

There is one point to be noted here. According to TP, IV. 2, between avyakta and buddhi or mahat there is an additional tattva called guṇa, but in MM it is not mentioned.

#### 27

lokā llokavidalı prāhur āśramā iti tadvidalı l strīpunnapunsakanı laingālı parāparam athāpare II

'Those who know lokas 'people' (imagine it) as lokas, those who know āśramas 'stages of religious life' as āśramas, those who know lingas 'sexes' as a male, a female, or a cunuch, while others as para 'higher' and apara 'lower'.'

The lokavids or laukikas are those who hold that the pleasing of people (lokānurañjana) is the real thing.—Ā. See II. 21.

The  $\bar{a}$ sramavids are, as says  $\bar{A}$ , D a k s a and others. Probably they are the writers on religious laws (dharmas $\bar{a}$ strak $\bar{a}$ ras).

Laingas are grammarians, as says A.

Here parāpara refers to those who say that two Brahmans are to be known, the higher and the lower. MU, VI. 1: dve brahmanī veditavye param caivāparam ca.—Ā.

## 28

sṛṣṭir iti sṛṣṭivido laya iti ca tadvidaḥ t sthitir iti sthitividaḥ sarvaṃ ceha tu sarvadā II 'Those who know sisti 'creation' (imagine it) as sisti, 1 those who know laya 'destruction' as laya, and those who know sthiti 'continued existence' as sthiti. All (these imaginations) are always here.'

- 1 See I. 7.
- 2 The knowers of sati, laya and sthiti are, according to  $\bar{A}$ , the Paurānikas 'knowers of Parānas.'
  - 3 It (iha) refers to Atman.

## 29

yam bhāvam darśayed yasya tam bhāvam sa tu paśyati I tam cāvati sa bhūtvāsau tadgrahah samupaiti tam I

'Whatever thing is presented to him, he sees it; that (ātman) becomes it (i.e., the thing presented), and satisfies him. And the strong attachment to it (i.e., to the idea that herein lies the truth) takes possession of him.'

# 30

etair eşo 'pṛthagbhāvaiḥ pṛthag eveti lakṣitaḥ I evaṃ yo veda tattvena kalpayet so 'viśaikitaḥ I

Verily it (ātman) is considered different through these things that are not different from it. One who knows it in fact may imagine without any hesitation.'

When one sees a piece of rope as a snake, in fact, there is no difference between these two things, for the snake is nothing but the piece of rope which simply appears as a snake. Thus there is only the piece of rope and not the snake which is merely imposed thereon. In the same way there is only ātman, all things other than that being mere imagined.

The imagination referred to in d of the kārikā is with reference to the practical view of the things. There is no harm to the man in doing so when he knows the truth.

31

svapnamāye yathā dṛṣṭe gandharvanagaraṃ yathā I tathā viśvam idam dṛṣṭam vedāntesu vicaksanaih II

'As dream and illusion are seen, and as is the town of Gandharvas, so is seen all this universe by those who are well-versed in the Vedantas.'

The word gandharvanagara 'an imaginary town in the sky' is not pre-Buddhist and is frequently used in Buddhist works. The thought, too, of the kārikā has often found expression in them. For instance, SR, IX (p. 29):

yathaiva gandharvapuram marīcikā, yathaiva māyā supinam yathaiva ( svabhāvaśūnyā tu nimittabhāvanā tathopamān jānatha sarvadharmān ()

See MV, p. 178; MK, XVII. 33:

gandharvanagarākārā marīcisvapnasannibhāḥ I

LA, X. 144 (p. 283):

gandharvanagarasvapnamāyānirmāņasādīsāh !

Op. cit. 875 (p. 374):

māyāsvapnanibhā bhāvā gandharvanagaropamāḥ I marīcyudakacandrābhāḥ svavikalpaṃ vibhāvayet II

1 T is seen dar writes in his Popular Scientific Recreations: The mirage or Fata Morgana is a very curious but sufficiently common phenomenon and in the Asiatic and African plains it is frequently observed. \* \* \* The Fata Morgana and the inverted images of ships at sea are not uncommon on European coasts. Between Sicily and Italy, this effect is seen in the Sea of Riggio with fine effect. Palaces, towers, fertile plain, with cattle grazing on them are seen with many other terrestrial objects upon the Sea.—The Pàlaces of Fairy Morgana, p. 649.

See also 279, 291 (pp. 301, 303).

In showing the Buddhist view S ank an a quotes the following in his commentary on BS. II. 2, 28:

svapnamāyāmarīcyudakagandharvanagarādipratyayā vinaiva bāhyenārthena grāhyagrāhakakārā bhavanti.

The author says in the kārikā that this view is of the Vedāntins. Sankara follows it, but Rāmānuja with others is of the opposite opinion saying (B.S., I. 1. 1): jagad api pāramārthikam eva jñāyate.

The following two kārikās show the conclusion:

32

na nirodho na cotpattir na baddho na ca sādhakaḥ l na mumukṣur na vai mukta ity eṣā paramārthatā l

'There is no disappearance, no origination; no one in bondage, no one who works for success; no one who is desirous of emancipation, no one who is emancipated.—This is the highest truth.'

This is what is the essence of Mahāyāna Buddhism. For the wording of na nirodho na cotpattih *cf*. the opening kārikā of Nāgārjuna's MK, p. 3: anirodham anutpādam. See also BA, IX. 150:

evam ca na nirodho 'sti na ca bhāvo 'sti sarvadā I ajātam aniruddham ca tasmāt sarvam idam jagat II

LA, p. 191: aniruddhā anutpannāś ca bhagavatā sarva dharmā deśyante.

See also LA, II. 1, X. 1:

utpādabhangarahito lokah khapuspasannibhah 1

<sup>1</sup> Lit, 'suppression,'

#### **ĀGAMAŚĀSTRA**

For bandha and moksa compare the following: CŚ, 179:

kasyacit kenacit sārdham bandho nāma na vidyate I pareņa saha bandhasya viprayogo na yujyate II

#### LA, 79b:

nātra kaścin mahāmate badhyate na ca mucyate.

Op. cit. X. 275:

na mokso na ca bandhanam!

See also the Āryaratnakūṭa quoted in MV, pp. 49, 339 and Chapter called Bandhanamokṣaparīkṣā of MK with MV, /I from which we quote the following (5):

atrāha. yady api tvayā saṃsāranirvāṇe pratiṣiddhe tathāpi ndhamokṣau vídyete. na cāvídyamānasya bhāvasvabhāvasya ndhamokṣau sambhavataḥ. tasmād bandhamokṣaṣadbhāvād lyata eva bhāvānāṃ svabhāva iti. ucyate. syād bhāvānāṃ abhāvo yadi bandhamokṣāv eva syātāṃ. na tu sta ity āha—

na badhyante na mucyanta udayavyayadharminah I

## Āryaratnakūļa in MV, p. 49:

athāyuṣmān subhūtis tān bhikṣūn etad avocat kutrāyuṣmanto tāḥ kuto vāgatāḥ. te 'vocan. na kvacid gamanāya na kutaśdā āgamanāya bhadanta subhūte bhagavatā dharmo deśitaḥ. a. ko nāmāyuṣmatāṃ śāstā. āhuḥ. yo notpanno na parinirsyati. āha. kathaṃ yuṣmābhir dharmaḥ śrutaḥ. āhuḥ. na andhanāya na mokṣāya.

## Cf. Sānkhyakārikā, 62:

tasmān na badhyate nāpi mucyate nāpi saṃsarati kaścit i saṃsarati badhyate mucyate ca nānāśrayā prakṛtiḥ II

We read in the MSA, VI. 2 (p. 22):

na san na cāsan na tathā na cānyathā na jāyate vyeti na cāvahīyate ! na vardhate nāpi viśudhyate punar viśudhyate tat paramārthalakṣaṇaṃ !! The present kāṅkā is widely quoted in minor Upaniṣads and other religious and philosophical works of the country sometimes with slight variations. For instance, see Avadhūtopaniṣad, 8; Ātmopaniṣad, 31; Tripurātāpanyupaniṣad, V. 10; Brahmabindūpaniṣad, 10.

The reason for what is said above is advanced in the following kārikā:

33

bhāvair asadbhir evāyam advayena ca kalpitah l bhāvā apy advayenaiva tasmād advayatā śivā l

'It is (ātman) imagined in the form of things which are really non-existent through that which is non-dual, and the things (themselves), too, are imagined through what is non-dual. Therefore non-duality is blissful.'

The word advaya 'non-dual' means 'one free from both the perceiver and perceptible (grāhyagrāhakarahita).'

The imagination of ātman as different things, such as prāṇa, etc., which have no existence, is through the advaya. For the imagination mainly depends on it, just like the imagination of a snake on a piece of rope; no imagination of a snake is possible, if there is no rope. Similarly things are imagined through the advaya, ātman. It is the advaya through which there are both the imaginations, the imagination of ātman as different things, and the imagination of the things themselves. Thus advayatā 'the state of non-duality' being real is blissful.

34

nänyabhävena nänedam na svenāpi kathañcana t na pṛthań nāpṛthak kiñcid iti tattvavido viduḥ 11

'It (the world) is not manifold either through its own nature 1201B.-6

or through that of another; there is not either the different or the non-different—the knowers of truth know this.'

Here in the beginning of a I should like to propose to read nānyabhāvena, as I have done, for nātmabhāvena accepted by all, though the former is not supported by any edition or MS. known to me. My reason is this: The words ātmabhāvena (a) and svena (b) are in fact, one and the same in sense; they do not convey any difference in their meanings which is evidently required here. I am afraid, S's explanation can hardly be accepted being unwarranted and far-fetched, as it seems to me. Here ātmabhāvena appears to be inexplicable.

Having modified the reading as above, I think the words anyabhāva and sva are actually the same as parabhāva 'nature of other' and svabhāva 'nature of one's own' respectively, as thoroughly attacked, discussed, and finally refuted in MK and MV, XV (svabhāvaparīkṣā), pp. 259 ff. Cf. Nāgārjuna's pratītyasamutpāda which is (MV, p. 3) anekārtham anānārtham. Candrakīrti comments: ekaś cāsāv arthaś caikārtho 'bhinnārthaḥ. na pṛthag ity arthaḥ. na pṛthag ity arthaḥ. See MK, X. 16:

ātmanas ca satattvam ye bhāvānām ca pṛthak pṛthak t nirdisanti na tān manye sāsanasyārthakovidān II See our text IV. 91 with notes.

I ātmabhāvena paramārthasvarūpeņa, svena prāņādyātmanā.

35

vītarāgabhayakrodhair munibhir vedapāragaiḥ l nirvikalpo hy ayaṃ dṛṣṭaḥ prapañcopaśamo 'dvayaḥ l

'This cessation of the expansion of the universe, devoid of duality and imagination, is seen by the sages who have reached the other shore of the (ocean of the) Vedas and are free from attachment, fear and anger.'

The word prapañcopaśama is nowhere found in the pre-Buddhist Brahmanic works. It is met with only in later and minor Upaniṣads (NPU, 4. 1; NUU, 1; RUU, 2; for prapañca see SU, 6.6; KlU, 17), including the MāU, 7, the existence of which before S is doubtful.

The word prapañca of prapañcopaŝama is from pra-v pac or v pañc 'to spread out, make clear, or evident.' With this is connected v pajpañj from which pañjikā 'a commentary.' Rājaśekhara writes in his Kāvyamīmāṃsā, GOS, 1916, p. 5: viṣamapadabhañjikā pañjikā; and we read in Hemacandras Abhidhānacintāmaṇi, II. 168, 170: niruktaṃ padabhañjinam, pañjikā padabhañjikā. From this it appears that pañjikā is from bhañjikā (from v bhañj; cf. vibhanga from this root in the sense of 'thorough explanation' used in Buddhist Sanskrit and Pali works). But philologically it can hardly be supported.

Let it be as it may, the meaning of prapañca used frequently in subsequent Vedantic works is, according to that system, 'expansion of the universe' or the 'visible world' (prapañcyata iti prapañcaḥ). But in accordance with the Buddhists it means 'verbal designation,' 'expression,' 'word' (prapañcyate 'nena or prapañcayatīti prapañcaḥ). Thus anything that is expressed by a word or the word itself is prapañca according to the Buddhists. (See The Conception of Buddhist Nirvāṇa, pp. 48, 91, 156, 209.) Candrakīrtti writes in his MV, p. 373:

prapañco hi väk prapañcayaty arthān iti kṛtvā. prapañcair aprapañcitam (MK, XVIII. 9) vāgbhir avyākṛtam ity arthaḥ.

These words (vāc) are naturally various as said in the same work, p. 350. See the passage quoted in our text, I. 17.

prapañcopasama which is the same as prapañcoparama (MV, p. 11) and prapañcavilaya (discussed by S in his commentary on BS, III. 2. 21) is mokṣa of the Vedāntists belonging to the school of G a u d a p ā d a followed by S, and nirvāṇa of the

Mādhyamikas, and the object in view of Nāgārjuna in writing his MK as said in MV, p. 4: sarvaprapañcopaśamaśivalakṣaṇaṃ nirvāṇaṃ śāstrasya prayojanaṃ nirdiṣṭam. He himself says (MV, p. 11):

anirodham anutpādam anucchedam aśāśvatam (
anekārtham anānārtham anāgamam anirgamam (
yaḥ pratītyasamutpādam prapañcopaśamam śivam (
deśayāmāsa sambuddhas tam vande vadatām varam ()

For a fuller explanation of prapañcopasama (and siva, MāU, 7) from the Buddhist point of view see MK, XXV. 24 with MV, p. 538:

sarvopalambhopasamah prapañcopasamah sivah !

iha hi sarveṣām prapañcānām nimittānām ya upaśamo 'pravṛttis tan nirvāṇam. sa eva copaśamaḥ. prakṛtyaivopaśāntatvāc chivaḥ. vācām apravṛtter vā prapañcopaśamaś cittasyāpravṛtyā śivaḥ. kleśaprahāṇena vā prapañcopaśamo niravaśeṣavāsanā-prahāṇena śivaḥ. jñeyānupalabdhyā vā prapañcopaśamo jñānānupalabdhyā śivaḥ.

LA, X. 230 (p. 295):

sarvaprapañcopasamad bhranto nabhipravartate prajña yavad vikalpante bhrantis tavat pravartate 11

For nirvikalpa see MV, p. 374:

nirvikalpam hi tat (referring to tattva, MK, XVIII. 9). vikalpaś cittapracārah. tadrahitatvāt tattvam nirvikalpam. yathoktam sūtre. paramārthasatyam katamat. yatra jūānasyāpracārah kah punarvādo 'kṣarāṇām iti. evam nirvikalpam.

It is to be noted that it is vikalpa from which spring up rāga, dveṣa, moha, etc.

The word vedapāraga in the text may be taken here as vedapāra-ga and not veda-pāraga as above meaning 'one conversant with Vedānta (Veda-pāra).' Cf. vedānteṣu vicakṣaṇaih (II. 31).

tasmād evam viditvainam advaite yojayet smṛtim l advaitam samanuprāpya jaḍaval lokam ācaret l

'Therefore having thus known it (i.e., prapañcopaŝama) one should fix one's memory on non-duality, and having realized non-duality should behave as a fool among people.'

The word *smṛti*, Pali *sati*, means one of the five *balas* 'strengths or powers,' or one of the seven requisites for attaining supreme knowledge (*bodhyaṅgas*, Pali *bojjhaṅgas*). See DS, LXVIII, XLIX; MVT². §§ 38, 39, Cf. ChU, VII. 26. 7: āhāraśuddhau sattvaśuddhiḥ. sattvaśuddhau dhruvā smṛtiḥ. smṛtilambhe sarvagranthīnāṃ vipramokṣaḥ. Here Ś explains *dhruvā smṛti* as continuous absence of forgetting (*avicchinna avismaraṇa*). This is nothing but *dhyāna* 'meditation.' Rāmānuja in his commentary on BS, 1.1.1 (ed. Narasiṃhācārya, Ananda Press, 1909, pp. 9ff.), supports it; and Vācaspatimiśra, YS, I. 20, expressly says that *smṛti* is steady and undisturbed meditation (*smṛtir dhyānam anākulam avikṣiptam*). The word *smṛti* in the present kārikā should be taken in this sense.

For d see S on BS, III. 4.50, where he says: 'Let him be free from guile, pride and so on, not manifesting himself by a display of knowledge, learning and virtuousness, just as a child whose sensual powers have not yet developed themselves does not strive to make a display of himself before others (SBE).' He quotes here the following from a work (smrti):

gūḍhadharmāśrito vidvān ajñātacaritaṃ caret ( andhavaj jaḍavac cāpi mūkavac ca mahīṃ caret ()

See Jābāla Up, 6; Āśrama Up, 4; Minor Upaniṣads, Adyar Library, 1921, Vol. I, pp. 154, 161, 184.

nistutir nirnamaskāro niḥsvadhākāra eva ca l calācalaniketas ca yatir yādṛcchiko bhavet l

'Giving no praise, paying no homage, nor pronouncing svadhā, with an unfixed home and acting at random, one should become an ascetic.'

The word svadhā (originally svadhā' 'self-position,' 'self-power,' 'inherent power') is a Vedic exclamation mostly used in offering food to pitrs 'deceased ancestors.' It also means the food for pitrs. In this case svadhākāra would mean 'offering food to pitrs.'

Calācalaniketa is, in fact, aniketa of BG, XII. 9, and anilaya of BA, VIII. 29, 88, both meaning 'homeless.' Cf. apūrva iva sarvatra in BA, VIII. 16; anagāra 'homeless' or 'a homeless wanderer' in Buddhist literature, and in Jaina works (Aupapātikasūtra, ed. Leumann, 1883, §§. 27, 57, etc.).

Here calācala in the compound calācalaniķeta is taken by S as two words cala- and -acala-, and consequently he has fallen into a great confusion in explaining it. The fact is that calācala is one word meaning caācala 'intensely moving' i.e., 'absolutely not fixed.' See the Vārtiķa, 6 ('caricalio') in the Mahābhāṣya on Pāṇini, VI 1.12. For example, the following may be quoted: Śiśupālavadha, XVII.53: calācalair anupadam āhatāḥ khuraiḥ; Kirātārjunīya, XI. 30: janmino 'sya sthitim vidyāl lakṣmīm iva calācalam; Cāṇakyanītidarpaṇa (Bombay, 1867), V. 20: calācale ca saṃsāre dharma eko hi niścalaḥ.

The word yādrcchika does not imply absolutely unrestrained movements, for that is impossible for such a man. See S on BS, III. 4. 28-31, 47-50. Mark the significance of the word yati lit. 'one who strives to restrain one's passions.' The

following occurs in the NPU in the Minor Upanişads, Adyar, Vol. I, pp. 147, 153:

nirdvandvo nirnamaskāro niḥsvadhākāra eva ca. kasyāpi vandanam akṛtvā na-namaskāro na-svāhākāro na-svadhākāro na-nindāstutir yādrochiko bhavet.

## 38

tattvam ādhyātmikam dṛṣṭvā tattvam dṛṣṭvā tu bāhyatah l tattvībhūtas tadārāmas tattvād apracyuto bhavet ||

iti gaudapādīya āgamaśāstre vaitathākhyam dvitīyam prakaranam samāptam.

'Having realised the truth inward, having also realised the truth outward, one becomes the truth (itself), delighting therein and being such one should be unmoved from it.

> Here ends in the Agamaśāstra of Gauḍapāda Book Two called Unreality.'

The tattva referred to in the kārikā is nothing but prapañco-pasama (II. 35) and this is for Vedantists mokṣa and for Buddhists nirvāṇa=pratītyasamutpāda=śūnya.

The words  $\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}tmika$  and  $b\bar{a}hya$  are two opposite terms and can respectively be translated by 'subjective' and 'objective', or in some cases by 'inward' and 'outward' respectively,  $\bar{a}tman$  meaning 'body' and, according to those who believe in the existence of a separate soul, 'soul' as well. Here  $b\bar{a}hyatah$  is an adverb, and so  $\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}tmika$ , too, may be taken as such. Or both of them are to be construed as adjectives.

For the thought and wording of the kārikā see the following couplet quoted as a speech of Bhagavat in MV, p. 348 (Poussin JRAS, 1910, p. 137):

śūnyam ādhyātmikam paśya paśya śūnyam bahirgatam I na vidyate so 'pi kaścid yo bhāvayati śūnyatām II

# BOOK III

1

upāsanāśrito dharmo jāte brahmaņi vartate |
prāg utpatter¹ ajam sarvam tenāsau kṛpaṇaḥ smṛtaḥ ||

'The dharma 'duty' relating to upāsanā 'worship' arises when Brahman is born, but before birth all is unborn; therefore, that (dharma) is regarded as miserable.'

Ś takes dharma to signify a worshipper (upāsaka, sādhaka). A simply follows him explaining: dehasya dhāraṇād dharmo jīvah.

Upāsanā depends upon the duality of an upāsaka 'worshipper' and an upāsya 'one to be worshipped.' This duality also in its turn is possible only when that one Brahman is jāta 'born', i.e., manifests himself in the form of this universe. His jāti or prajāti 'birth' or' growing forth' or bahubhāva 'becoming many' is often found in the Upaniṣads: TU, II. 6: so 'kāmayata bahu syām prajāyeya; ChU, VI. 2.1-3: tad aikṣata bahu syām prajāyeya, 3.23: seyam devataikṣata hantāham imās tisro devatā anena jīvenātmanānupraviśya nāmarūpe vyākaravāṇi. See BS with Ś, I. 1. 2, 5.

Upāsanā literally means 'sitting near,' i.e., 'sitting near one who is to be worshipped.' In fact, upāsanā, as Ś explains it, is a continuous course of thought (i.e., meditation), not disturbed by any other dissimilar thought upon an object supported by the scripture. So says Ś in his Introduction to ChU, I. I. I: upāsanam tu yathāśāstrasamarthitam kiñcid ālambanam upādāya tasmin samānacittavṛttisantānakaraṇam tadvilakṣaṇapratyayānantaritam. See his Com. PU, 5, and BS, I. I.I.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This phrase, prāg utpatteh, is used not less than eight times by S in his comm. on the ChU, VI. 2. 1.

ato vaksyāmy akārpaņyam ajāti samatām gatam l yathā na jāyate kiñcij jāyamānam samantatah ll

'I shall, therefore, so speak of that state of non-miserableness in which there is no origination (jāti), and which (on that account) is the same throughout, as to show that the things which are (apparently) being born on all sides are none of them born at all.'

The highest truth (paramārtha), according to our author and the Mādhyamikas as well, is that there is nothing that comes into being (jāyate, III. 48). This ajāti or anutpāda (so frequently used in Buddhist texts) 'non-origination' is the main subject which the author takes up and discusses throughout the remaining portion of his book. See II. 32; III. 20, 38, 48; IV. 5,71. The word ajāti occurs nine times in the work: III. 2, 38; IV. 4, 5, 19, 21, 29, 42, 43.

The sameness (samatām gata, samatā, sāmya) of things is owing to their common quality of non-origination (aiāti). The following is from the Aryasatyadvayāvatāra quoted in MV, p. 374: paramārthatah sarvadharmānutpādasamatayā paramārthatah sarvadharmātvantājātisamatavā paramārthatah tat kasmād dhetoh, paramārthato nirvānāsarvadharmāh. (nānā)karanā hi devaputra sarvadharmā atyantanirutpādatām upādāya, tad vathāpi nāma devaputra yac ca mrdbhājanasyābhyantaram ākāsam yac ca ratnabhājanasyābhyantaram ākāsam ākāśadhātur evaisah, tat paramārthato na kincin nānākaranam. evam eva devaputra vah [sam]kleśa[h sa] paramārthato 'tyantānutpādatā. yad api vyavadānam tad api paramārthato 'tyantāsamsāro 'pi paramārthato 'tyantānutpādatā. nirvānam api paramārthato 'tyantānutpādatā. nāti a paramārthato nānākaranam, tat kasmād dhetoh, paramārthato 'tyantānutpādatvāt sarvadharmāṇām. See SP, IV. 83 (p. 143):

sarvadharmān samāñ śūnyān nirnānākaraṇātmakān ! na caitān prekṣate nāpi kiñcid dharmaṃ vipaśyati !! sarvadharmāḥ samāḥ sarve samāḥ samasamāḥ sadā ! evaṃ jñātvā vijānāti nirvāṇam amṛtaṃ śivaṃ !!

For b of the kārikā see III. 38a; IV. 93c-d, 95a, 100b.

In the first kārikā of this chapter mention of origination (jāti) of Brahman is made. Non-origination (ajāti) is, however, said in the second, and the author promises here to explain it. Now from the following kārikā he proceeds to do so showing the real sense of origination and non-origination:

3

ātmā hy ākāśavaj jīvair ghaṭākāśair ivoditaḥ l ghaṭādivac ca saṅghātair jātāv etan nidarśanam II

'Ātman has sprung up in the forms of Jīvas 'individual selves,' just like the springing up of the ākāśa¹ 'space' in the form of ghaṭākāśas 'spaces occupied by jars,' the conglomerations (of different limbs, organs of sense, etc.) being like jars and others. This is the illustration of origination.'

It is with ghaṭas that ghaṭākāśas are formed from the mahākāśa. In the same way, it is with the conglomerations that Ātman is born in the form of Jīvas.

On the origination of Atman see BU, II. 1. 20; MuU, II. 1.1; MnU, 1.4; BS, II. 3.17 with S's Com.

It is evident from the kārikā that the origination in both of the cases is not real, but imaginary.

See TJ, VIII. 10, and cf. :

ghaṭasaṃvṛtam ākāśaṃ niyamāne ghaṭe yathā ı ghaṭo niyeta nākāśaṃ tathā jivo nabhopamah ॥

TTU, V. 3.

1 This is generally called mahākāśa in Vedantic and other works

This is further explained in the following kārikā:

4

ghaṭādiṣu pralīneṣu ghaṭākāśādayo yathā l ākāśe sampralīyante tadvaj jīvā ihātmani l

'As the jars, etc., being destroyed the spaces of jars, etc., are completely merged into space, so are (completely merged) the Jīvas into Ātman'

This kārikā is quoted by Śāntirak sita in his commentary on MAK, 93, and it runs as follows in its Tibetan version:

bum.pa.la. sogs. shig. pa.ni | [bum. paḥi. nam. mkhaḥ.la.sogs. pa |] ji.ltar. nam.mkhaḥ.ḥdu.ḥgyur. ba | de.bshin. srog.kyan. nes.pa.yin ||

The second line of the verse is left out in Tib., and is reconstructed from Sanskrit by Wallesser: Der älter Vedänta, p. 20.

#### 1 Read bshig for shig.

The following kārikā meets the objection that the Ātman that springs up as different Jīvas being one, if one jīva feels happiness or suffers pain. all the Jīvas should have the same state of mind. But in fact it is not so:

5

yathaikasmin ghaṭākāśe rajodhūmādibhir yute l' na sarve saṃprayujyante tadvaj jīvāḥ sukhādibhiḥ l

'As one ghaṭākāśa 'space occupied by a jar' being connected with dust, smoke, etc., not all (ghaṭākāśas) are connected with them, so are the jivas with reference to happiness, etc.

The kārikā is quoted by Bhavya in his MHK, VIII. 13, the Tibetan version being as follows:

ji.ltar.bum.paḥi.nam.mkhaḥ.gcig | rdul.dań.du.bas.bsgribs.pa.na | thams.cad.de.bshin.ma.yin.ltar | bde.sogs.de.bshin.bdag.la.min ||

Literally reconstructed it would read in Sanskrit:

yathaikasmin ghatākāśe rajodhūmaiḥ [sam]āvṛte i na bhavanti tathā sarve na sukhādi tathātmani ii

The present kārikā is quoted with the reading na ca sarve prayujyante for c and is attributed to the ViP by Vijāān abhikṣu in his comm. on the SāS, 1. 152; but it is not to be found there. See S's comm. on the VSN, p. 16.

6

rūpakāryasamākhyāś ca bhidyante tatra tatra vai I ākāśasya na bhedo 'sti tadvaj jīveṣu nirṇayaḥ II

'Indeed forms, functions and names differ here and there, but there is no difference of the space; similar is the conclusion with regard to jīvas.'

There are different things, earthen pots, cloths, etc., their forms, functions, and names all differing from one another, yet the ākāśa intercepted by them is in itself not different in fact. In the same way though jīvas corresponding to ghaṭākāśas, etc., are different, Ātman corresponding to ākāśa or mahākāśa, etc., is not different.

Cf. TJ, VIII. 12:

ji.ltar.bum.sogs.tha.dad.kyañ | sa.la.tha.dad.ḥgah.yañ.med | de.bshin.lus.ni.tha.dad.kyañ | bdag.la.tha.dad.hgah.yañ.med || It may thus be translated into Sanskrit:

bhinneşv api ghaṭādyeṣu mṛdi bhedo na kaścana I tathā deheṣu bhinneśu na kaścid bheda ātmani II

7

nākāśasya ghaṭākāśo vikārāvayavau yathā l naivātmanaḥ sadā jīvo vikārāvayavau tathā l

'As the  $ghat\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$  is neither a transformation, nor a part of the  $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$ , so is always a Jīva neither a transformation, nor a limb of  $\bar{A}tman$ .'

8

yathā bhavati bālānam gaganam malinam malaiḥ!
tathā bhavaty abuddhānām ātmāpi malino malaiḥ ||

'As the sky appears to be soiled with dirt<sup>1</sup> to the ignorant, so appears Ātman, too, with impurities, to those who are not enlightened.'

This kārikā is quoted by Śāntirakṣita, loc. cit. The Tib. version is as follows:

ji. ltar.byis.pa.rnams.la. ni | nam.mkhaḥ.dri.mas. dri.can, ḥgyur | de.bshin. mi. mkhas.rnams.la.yaṅ | bdag.ni. dri.mas.dri.can. ḥgyur ||

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Such as dust, smoke, etc., See III. 5: rajodhūmādibhiḥ.

maraņe sambhave caiva gatyāgamanayor api l sthitaḥ¹ sarvaśarīreṣu ākāśenāvilakṣaṇaḥ l

In death and in birth, in moving forward and backward, (Ātman) in all bodies exists just like the space.'

In the origination and destruction of the ghaṭākāśa the mahākāśa is not affected. So is the case with Ātman in regard to death, birth, etc., which are connected only with the bodies. See ChU. VI. II. 3: jīvāpetaṃ vāva kiledaṃ mriyate na jīvo mriyate.

<sup>1</sup> This is found in only one MS., the reading which is generally known is sthitau 'in standing.'

10

sanghātāḥ svapnavat sarve ātmamāyāvisarjitāḥ l ādhikye sarvasāmye vā nopapattir hi vidyate 11

'All conglomerations (of limbs, etc.) are like dream being projected by the illusion of Ātman. As regards their superiority or the equality of all of them there is no ground.'

The saṅghātas, i.e., the bodies, having which the Ātman is born in the form of Jīvas, are like the ghaṭas of ghāṭākāśas. These saṅghātas have, however, no real existence, nor is there, therefore, any ground for thinking of their superiority or equality among them.

In discussing what Jiva is the author says further:

11

rasādayo hi ye kośā vyākhyātās taittirīyake ! teṣām ātmā paro jīvaḥ sa-yathā¹ samprakāśitaḥ ||

'The seaths such as consisting of the essence (of food)

are described in the Taittirīyaka, i.e., Taittirīya Upaniṣad (II. 1-6), the supreme soul of them is Jīva, as it is made there clear.'

'There are five kośas 'seaths,' viz., annarasamaya or simply annamaya, prāṇa°, mano°, vijñāna°, and ānanda°, i.e., consisting of the essence of food, breath, mind, understanding, and bliss respectively. These are explained in the TU, II, 2 ff. According to the five divisions of kośas Ātman is also divided into five and are called after them, the last of them i.e., ānandamaya, or in accordance with a different authority (see BS, I. 1. 12-19), the one on which rests the last of them is real Ātman. This is referred to in the present kārikā by para ātman. And the author says that this is Jīva.

1 With some MSS. I read sa-yathā for khaṃ yathā accepted by S and found in other MSS. In favour of the second reading compare d of the next kārikā, which is in fact identical. The word sayathā, Pali seyyathā, in the sense of tad yathā, is often used in Brāhmaṇas and Upaniṣads. See PU, IV. 7, VI 5; MuU, III. 2. 8; SB, I. 2. 5. 24; 7. 3. 2; BU, II. 1. 20. Cf. in this connexion sa-yadi (=tad yadi), PU, V. 1, and Pali sa-ce for sa-cet (see p. 72, 1.2) in the same sense (Skt. tac cet).

# 12

dvayor dvayor madhujñāne param brahma prakāśitam I pṛthivyām udare caiva yathākāśaḥ prakāśitaḥ II

'In the madhuvidyā (i.e., the Madhubrāhmaṇa section of the BU, II. 5) in each of the pairs, (such as) the earth and the inside (of the body), the supreme Brahman is made manifest, as is made manifest the sky (III. 3 ff.).'

BU, II. 5, is called *Madhubrāhmaṇa* owing to the fact of its dealing with a particular *Brahmavidyā* which is named madhuvidyā or madhujīāna (as in our text) on account of the frequent use of the word madhu which is very important

n this connexion. Here there are some pairs of things, such is the earth and all beings (pṛthivī and sarvāṇi bhūtāni), and in nese pairs it is shown that the person outside the body in the earth, etc., and the person inside the body are identical with Ātman, Brahman. Let the following passage be quoted ere (BU, II. 5. 1):

iyam pṛthivī sarveṣām madhv asyai pṛthivyai sarvāṇi bhūtāni adhu. yaś cāyam asyām pṛthivyām tejomayo 'mṛtamayaḥ puruṣo aś cāyam adhyātmam śārīras tejomayo 'mṛtamayaḥ puruṣo 'yam va sa yo 'yam ātmedam amṛtam idam brahmedam sarvam.

'This earth is the honey (madhu, the effect) of all beings, and all beings are the honey of this earth. Likewise this right immortal person in this earth, and the bright immortal erson incorporated in the body (both are madhu). He indeed the same as the self, that immortal, that Brahman, that All.<sup>1</sup>

1 Tr. Max Müller, SBE.

13

jīvātmanor ananyatvam abhedena prasasyate ! nānātvam nindyate yac ca tad evam hi samañjasam !

'That the identity without any distinction of Jiva and tman is praised, and that their distinction is censured, this ecomes reasonable only on this hypothesis.'

As regards the identity of Jīva and Ātman see ChU, VI 8.7 at tvam asi); BU, I. 4. 10 (ahaṃ brahmāsmi), II. 5. 19 (ayam mā brahma); MuU, III. 2. 9 (sa yo ha vai tat paramaṃ rahma veda brahmaiva bhavati). As for the difference see U, I. 4. 2 (dvitīyād vai bhayam bhavati), IV. 4. 19, KU. 7. 10, II (mṛtyoḥ sa mṛtyum āpnoti ya iha nāneva paśyati); U II. 7 (yadā hy evaiṣa etasminn u daram antaraṃ kurute ha tasya bhayaṃ bhavati).

jīvātmanoh pṛthaktvam yat prāg utpatteh prakīrttitam l bhaviṣyadvṛttyā gauṇam tan mukhyatvam na hi yujyate l

'The difference of Jīva and Ātman before creation, which is declared (in texts<sup>1</sup>), is attributive with reference to the future state; its primary sense is certainly not reasonable.'

It is only after creation that there is a distinction between Ātman and Jīva, but before it there is no distinction whatsoever. When there is no production of ghaṭa 'jar,' and consequently no ghaṭākāśa, there is no distinction between mahākāśa and ghaṭākāśa. Yet, one sometimes speaks of that distinction at that time, simply anticipating what is going to happen in the near future, that is, thinking of the imminent production of the ghaṭa.

In his explanation of the kārikā Ś gives an apt example. He says that it is like the use of the following sentence which is very common: odanam pacati. The word odana means 'cooked or boiled rice.' Therefore literally the sentence means 'one cooks cooked rice.' But the rice which was already cooked or boiled does not require to be cooked again. Yet, the people say, 'He cooks cooked rice.' Clearly here this use is attributive and has reference to the future state of the unboiled rice. The people assume the future state as present. So is here the statement of difference of Ātman and Jīva.

S says that in passages of the Upanisads about evolution and dissolution it is the unity of Ātman and Jīva, which is sought to be established. This unity will be demonstrated in the text. First there is shown difference and then unity which is the conclusion. It is, therefore, in view of this future

sa dādhāra pṛthiviṃ dyām utemāṃ ( kasmai devāya haviṣā vidhema)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Such as RV, X, 121.1:

sense or state that the difference is stated. Thus it is only in its secondary, and not in its primary sense.

The author wanted (III. 2) to show that there is no origination (jāti), nor is there anything that comes into being (jāyate). Having done so to some extent he now meets, in the next kārikā, the objection that may be raised against this view, showing thereby also that there is, in fact, no distinction between Ātman and Jīva:

15

mṛllohavisphuliṅgādyaiḥ sṛṣṭir yā coditānyathā ! upāyah so 'vatārāya nāsti bhedaḥ kathañcana !!

'The creation which is urged in different manners with the illustrations of earth, metal, sparks, etc., is only a means for an introduction (to the truth). There is in no way any distinction (between Ātman and Jīva).'

For details see IV. 42.

For the creation referred to see ChU, VI. 1. 4-5; BU, II. 1.20. VI. 2. 14; MuU, II. 1-1; MU, VI. 26.

As to how that creation and consequently the distinction between Ātman and Jīva, though unreal, are a means for introducing one to truth is explained in the next kārikā:

16

āśramās trividhā hīnamadhyamotkṛṣṭadṛṣṭayaḥ I upāsanopadiṣṭeyaṃ tadartham anukampayā II

'There are three spiritual stages, viz., of lower vision, of middle vision, and of higher vision; and this upāsanā 'worship' is laid down for them out of kindness.'

In fact there is no distinction between Ātman and Jīva, yet some distinction is attributed there, only to help people

in realizing the truth by prescribing different upāsanās according to their respective powers of vision. See III. 1.

The word āśrama in the text is explained by Ś as āśramin one with āśrama or religious state of life, i.e., adhikrta an entitled one. In all probability the original word was āśraya a recipient, a person or thing in which any quality or article is inherent or retained or received, i.e., an adhikārin or adhikrta an entitled one. See the use of the word in the following line from MSA, XVI. 69:

nikṛṣṭamadhyottamavīryam anyad yānatraye yuktajanāśrayeṇa ! atra āśrayabhedena vīryabhedo nirdiṣṭaḥ.

The author now mentions the opinions of the dualists, such as the Vaiśeṣikas, the Sānkhyas, etc., and shows that the decision arrived at by him, i.e., non-distinction (abheda), does not conflict with the views held by them:

## 17

svasiddhāntavyavasthāsu dvaitino niścitā dṛḍham t parasparam virudhyante tair ayam na virudhyate 1

'The dualists are firmly fixed in their own distinctive conclusions and contend with one another, but this (our view) does not conflict with them.'

## 18

advaitam paramārtho hi dvaitam tadbheda ucyate t teṣām ubhayathā dvaitam tenāyam na virudhyate.

'The supreme reality is non-duality, and duality is said

to be of it a particular state or effect of it, while according to them (i.e., dualists) there is duality in both ways. Therefore it does not conflict.

So far as mere duality is concerned, it is not that we do not admit it at all, as you do; we do accept it. Hence there is no conflict. Between cause and effect there is, in fact, no difference (kāryakāraṇayor abhedaḥ), the effect being merely a particular state of its cause. So there is no independent existence of the effect apart from that of its cause. In the same way duality is a particular state or effect of non-duality, being an illusion (II. 10). The only difference between us is that according to you duality is in both ways, in reality and also in appearance, while we say that though there is duality, no doubt, it is not in reality, it exists only in appearance.

See next kārikā.

- 1 Cf. bheda with bhidyate in the following kārīkā.
- <sup>2</sup> S: paramārthatas cāparamārthatas ca 'in reality and not in reality,'

# 19

māyayā bhidyate hy etan nānyathājam kathañcana I tattvato bhidyamāne hi martyatām amṛtam vrajet II

'lt (advaita) becomes different only through illusion, as the unborn (aja) can in no other way become different, for if it becomes in reality different the immortal would become mortal.'

See IV. 6.

#### 20

ajātasyaiva bhāvasya jātim icchanti vādinaḥ l ajāto hy amṛto bhāvo martyatām katham eṣyati l

<sup>&#</sup>x27;The disputants seek to establish the birth of an unborn

thing. Now a thing which is unborn is immortal, and that being the case, how can it become mortal?

See IV. 6.

2.1

na bhavaty amṛtam martyam na martyam amṛtam tathā l prakrter anyathābhāvo na kathañcid bhavisyati !

'The immortal does not become mortal, nor likewise the mortal immortal. In no way can nature change.'

See IV. 7, 29.

22

svabhāvenāmīto yasya bhāvo gacchati martyatām kṛtakenāmītas tasya katham sthāsyati niścalah l

'How can he, according to whom a thing which is naturally immortal becomes mortal, maintain that an immortal thing, when it becomes artificial, will remain changeless?

See IV. 8.

23

bhūtato 'bhūtato vāpi sṛjyamāne samā śrutiḥ l niścitaṃ yuktiyuktaṃ ca yat tad bhavati netarat l

'As regards creation there are equal sacred texts (stating

creation to be) from the existent or from the non-existent. But that which is ascertained and reasonable is (acceptable), and not the other.

See IV. 3.

It says that in reality there is no jāti 'origination' either from the existent or the non-existent, though there are śrutis supporting both the views equally. Therefore the author says that what is reasonable is to be accepted, as certain. And what is reasonable is pointed out in the next kārikā.

According to Śańkara bhūtataḥ is paramārthataḥ, and abhūtataḥ māyayā. But in IV. 3 he explains the same words saying bhūtasya vidyamānasya°, abhūtasya avidyamānasya.

- 1 sad eva somyedam agra āsīt\*. ChU, VI. 2.1.
- <sup>2</sup> asad vā idam agra āsīt. tato vai sad ajāyata. TU, II. 7. 1.

#### 24

neha nāneti cāmnāyād indro māyābhir ity api t ajāyamāno bahudhā māyayā jāyate tu saḥ t

'From the sacred text' "there is no plurality here" and also from "Indra through māyās, etc.," (it is to be known

- In the original āmnāya means śruti.
- neha nānāsti kiācana. BU, IV. 4. 19; KU, IV. 11.
- rūpaṃrūpaṃ pratirūpo babhūva
  tad asya rūpaṃ praticakṣaṇāya I
  indro māyābhiḥ pururūpa īyate
  yuktā hy asya harayaḥ śatā daśa I
  RV, VI. 47. 18; BU, II. 5. 19.

that) it is through illusion that he 4 is variously born, though (in fact) he does not take birth.' 5

- 4 It refers to Purusa, Prajāpati.
- <sup>5</sup> The sentence ajāyamāno bahudhā jāyate in the text is taken from the VS. XXXI. 19 (=TA, III. 13.1) which runs as follows:

prajāpatiš carati garbhe antar ajāyamāno bahudhā vijāyate ( tasya yonim paripasyanti dhīrās tasmin ha tasthur bhuyanāni visvā (

The preceding stanza (18) is:

vedāham etam purusam mahāntam ādityavarņam tamasah parastāt l tam eva viditvātimṛṭyum eti nānyah panthā vidyate 'yanāya l

25

sambhūter apavādāc ca sambhavaḥ pratiṣidhyate ! ko nv enam janayed iti kāraṇaṃ pratiṣidhyate !

'By the denial of sambhūti 'birth' (in the śruti) birth is negatived; and (by the śruti) "who indeed would produce him" the cause of birth is denied.'

Here for the first time we have the oldest interpretation of the words sambhūti or sambhava and asambhūti or asambhava in IU, 12, 13, 14, which are so differently explained

<sup>1</sup> tato bhūya iva te tamo ya u sambhūtyām ratāh. IU, 12. This is the second half of the verse the first half being: andham tamah praviśanti ye 'sambhūtim upāsate.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> jāta eva na jāyate ko nv enam janayet punah. BU, III. 9. 28.

by S and others. Evidently Gaudapāda takes here sambhūti (sambhava) in the sense of utpatti or jāti, 'birth,' 'production,' 'origination.' This origination is negatived (ajāti) here, and that is one of the main points of the work of Gaudapāda. For his use of the word sambhava see III. 9. 48: IV. 16. 38.

<sup>3</sup> The following may be read with interest. Here the meanings of the words asambhūtiḥ, etc., are given according to S and others.

The figures refer to the stanzas of IU, while those in brackets to the stanzas of the VS.

		Sankara
12	asambhūtiḥ sambhūtiḥ	prakītiķ, kāraņam avidyā avyākītākhyā. kāryabrahma, hiraņyagarbhaķ.
13	sombhavaḥ asambhavaḥ	sambhūtiḥ, kāryabrahma. asambhūtiḥ, avyākṛtam.
14	vinā(aḥ sambhūtiḥ (once taken as asambhūtiḥ)	vinēćavat kāryam. avyākṣtam, avyākṣtopāsanā.
		Uvața
12 (9)	asambhūtiḥ	mṛtasya sataḥ sambhavo nĕsti. mṛta ĕtmano "bhēvaḥ.
	eambhūti <u>h</u>	ātmāstitvam.
13 (10)	sambhavah asambhavah	sambhavaparijñānam (=sambhūti*) 0
14 (11)	eambhūtiḥ vinālaḥ	jagatah sambhavoikahetuh param brahma. vināti tarīram.
		Mahīdhara
12 (9)	asambhūtiḥ	asambhavam° mṛtasya punaḥ sambhavo nĕsti.
	sambhūtiḥ	ātmā.
13 (10)	eambhavah asambhavah	kāryabrahma. avyākṛtam.
14 (11)	sambhūtiḥ vināfaḥ	param brahma. vinītadhermakam tarīram.

For the explanation given by the followers of Rāmānuja and Madhvācārya see their respective works: commentary by Rangarāmānuja, Anandashrama Sanskrit Series; by Madhvācārya, in the Sacred Books of the Hindus.

sa esa neti netīti vyākhyātam nihnute yatah I sarvam agrāhyabhāvena hetunājam prakāsate I

'(The śruti) "This is No, No" denies what is explained. Therefore by the reason of incomprehensibleness it is evident that all is unborn."

The śruti "This is No, No" refers to sa eṣa neti nety ātmāgṛhyo na hi gṛhyate (BU, III. 9. 26; IV. 2. 4, 4. 22, 5. 15)— 'That (Ātman) is (to be described by) No, No. He is incomprehensible, for he cannot be comprehended.' But it appears, as thinks also the commentator himself, it alludes to the following śruti, too: athāta ādeśo neti neti (BU, II. 3. 6) 'Now follows the teaching by No, No.' For it is that śruti which denies both the forms of Brahman, viz., that which has form (mūrta) and that which has not form (amūrta). These two forms have already been described or explained in the text (BU, II. 3. 1). Things are either with or without a form, so when both of them are denied they cannot be comprehended. Thus it becomes evident that there is nothing that may have origination, in other words, all is 'unborn' (aja 'without generation)'.

1 dve vāva brahmaņo rūpe mūrtam caivāmūrtam ca°.

Now jāti or origination may be either of the existent (sat) or of the non-existent (asat). But both the cases are impossible. The author shows it in the next kārikās:

27

sato hi mãyayā janma jujyate na tu tattvataḥ l tattvato jāyate yasya jātaṃ tasya hi jāyate l

'The birth of that which exists can be reasonable only 1201B-9

through illusion, but not in reality. He who holds that one is born in reality has to accept (the position) that what is born had, indeed, been born.

See IV. 58. See also IV. 13 with its explanation. Cf. C\$, XI. 10 (260) with the note:

sambhavaḥ kriyate yasya prāk so' stīti na yujyate! sato yadi bhavej janma jātasyāpi bhaved bhavaḥ II

28

asato māyayā janma tattvato naiva yujyate l vandhyāputro na tattvena māyayā vāpi jāyate l

'The birth of that which does not exist is not reasonable at all through illusion or in reality. The son of a barren woman is not born either through illusion or in reality.'

The author now proceeds to show that the birth of the existent is possible only through  $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$  as said before (III. 27):

## 29

yathā svapne dvayābhāsam spandate māyayā manaḥ I . tathā jāgrad dvayābhāsam spandate māyayā manaḥ II

'As owing to  $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$  the mind in dream moves with appearance (or image) of the two (viz., the percipient and the perceptible, or in other words, the subject and the object), so owing to  $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$  the mind in the waking state moves with the appearance of the two.'

See IV. 61.

<sup>1</sup> See IV. 40.

advayam ca dvayābhāsam manah svapne na samsayah l advayam ca dvayābhāsam tathā jāgran na samsayah l

'There is no doubt that in dream the mind which is without a second is with the appearance of the two; so there is no doubt that in the waking state the mind which is without a second is with the appearance of the two.'

See IV. 62.

31

manodrsyam idam dvaitam yat kiñcit sacarācaram I manaso hy amanībhāve dvaitam naivopalabhyate II

'This duality in whatever form, comprising the movable and the unmovable is perceived by the mind, but when the mind becomes non-mind (i.e., when it loses its own function of thinking, manana) duality is not experienced.

See IV. 47, 48, 72. It means that the appearance of duality is nothing but the vibration of the mind (citta- or vijāāna-spandita), and when this vibration is stopped there is no duality at all.

When the state of non-mind is reached is said in the following kārikā:

32

ātmasatyānubodhena na sankalpayate yadā l amanastām tadā yāti grāhyābhāve tadagrahāt l

'When by the knowledge of the truth of ātman it (the mind) ceases from imagining it goes to the state of non-mind being non-cognizant in the absence of the things to be cognized.'

See IV. 72, 79, 99.

Mark here that d (grāhyābhāve tadagrahāt) is identical with that of Tk, 28. See Vis, p. 584; LA, p. 169; and the note on III. of our text.

The next kārikā says that the mind which becomes non-mind 38 as described above, is, in fact, identical with Brahman:

33

akalpakam ajam jñānam jñeyābhinnam pracaksate I brahma jñeyam ajam nityam ajenājam vibudhyate II

'The jāāna that does not imagine (i.e., indeterminate) and is (consequently) unborn is, they say, not different from the knowable. The knowable is Brahman, the unborn and eternal one. So the unborn (Brahman) becomes manifest through the unborn (jāāna).'

Here jāāna which the commentator explains as jūaptimātra is in reality vijāāna or citta 'mind' as spoken of above. See Vk, p. 3: cittam mano vijāānam vijāaptis ceti paryāyāh; MV, XVII. I (p. 308): cittam mano 'tha vijāānam iti tasyaiva (=cittasyaiva) paryāyāh; AK, II. 34: cittam mano 'tha vijāānam ekārtham; DN, I. 121; SN, II. 94. See III. 38, IV. 96.

For ajam vibudhyate cf. I. 16: advaitam budhyate tadā; III. 26: ajam prakāšate. For the whole thought see III. 35, 46. ajenājam vibudhyate=ajena jñānena (=cittena) ajam jñeyam (Brahman) vibudhyate prakāšate. The unborn knowable Brahman is manifest through the unborn knowledge (i.e., the mind when it ceases from its function), there being no difference between them. See III, 46, 47.

akalpaka = nirvikalpa (III. 34) = asanga (IV. 72). See LA, p. 157: asangalaksanam jūūnam.

For jñeyābhinna 'not different from the knowable' see IV. 1.

The author now goes to speak about the state of the mind described above:

nigṛhītasya manaso nirvikalpasya dhīmataḥ I pracāraḥ sa tu vijñeyaḥ suṣupte 'nyo na tatsamaḥ I

'That state (pracāra) of the mind of a wise man which is suppressed and (thus) indeterminate is to be known; (the state of the mind) in deep sleep is different from that, it is not like that.'

It is said here that the state of the suppressed and indeterminate mind is different from that in *suṣupti*. Why it is so is stated in the following kārikā (III. 35).

The word pracāra which is the same as vihāra or bhūmi, as the yogins and the Buddhists would express, means in such cases avasthā 'state.' Our author uses (IV. 80) for it also viṣaya.

By nirvikalpa manas 'indeterminate mind' we are to understand that it recognises no such distinction as that of subject and object, etc.

In Buddhist works *dhīmat* is a synonym for Bodhisattva (MSA, XIX. 73).

The reason for what is said above is now offered as follows:

35

līyate hi susupte tan nigṛhītam na līyate l tad eva nirbhayam brahma jñānālokām samantatah l

'For in deep sleep it (manas) falls into a state of oblivion,' but it does not do so when suppressed. Indeed, that is

Or, into a sleeping state, laya, see III. 41, 42.

Brahman, free from fear and radiant as jāāna² on all sides.'

It is clear here that the mind when suppressed, i.e., ceases from all of its activities, becomes Brahman. See III. 46.

Cf. the following quoted by Jayaratha in his commentary on śloka 30 of TA (Vol., III, p. 23) presenting the views of the Vijnānavādins:

prabhāsvaram idam cittam prakṛtyāgantavo malāḥ t teṣām apāye sarvārtham taj jyotir avinaśvaram #

<sup>2</sup> On jāānāloka Sankara writes: jāaptir jāānam ātmasvabhāvacaitanyam tad eva jāānam ālokah prakāšo yasya tad brahma jāānālokam. For āloka see vibhāta (III. 36, IV. 81), and jyotis (III. 37).

Brahman referred to above is now further described in the following  $k\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$ :

36

ajam anidram asvapnam¹ anāmakam arūpakam ! sakṛdvibhataṃ² sarvajñaṃ³ nopacāraḥ kathañcana #

'lt is unborn, and has no sleep, nor dream; nor has it name and form; it is illumined once for all, and is all-knowing. And in no way is there access-concentration (upacāra).'

The state, i.e., the state of becoming Brahman as stated above, is, in fact, the state of samādhi 'intense abstract meditation,' as we shall see presently in the following two kārikās.

See I. 16"; IV. 81".

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See III. 37°; IV. 81° with the note; ChU, VIII. 4. 1-2: sakṛd vibhāto hy eṣa brahmalokaḥ.

<sup>3 111, 47,</sup> 

Now, there are two kinds or stages of samādhi, upacāra samādhi and arpaṇā° (Pali appanā). In the first the mind is concentrated on its object, but not uninturruptedly, for now it is so and the next moment it is not so, simply moving near (upacarati) the object just like a bee sitting gently inside a lotus in search of its honey. In the second, the mind is firmly and uninturruptedly fixed on the object. Because this state of samādhi 'gives (arpayati)' the one-pointed mind to the object it is called arpaṇā, as B u d d h a g h o s a explains in his AS, p. 142: ekaggaṃ cittaṃ ārammaṇe appetīti appanā. Cf. p. 143: upagantvā vicaraṇavasena upavicāro. Cf. also vicāra as explained in the Vibhāvanī Tīkā on the AAS, I. 17:

santavutti vicāro cittassa nātipphandabhūto ākāse uppatitassa sakuņassa pakkhapasāraņam viya, padumassa uparibhāge paribbhamaņam viya ca padumābhimukhapatitassa bhamarassa.

The difference between upacāra and appanā is thus shown in VM, p. 126:

duvidho hi samādhi upacārasamādhi ca appanāsamādhi ca. dvīh'ākārehi cittam samādhīyati upacārabhūmiyam (=upacārāvatthāyam—Tīkā) vā parilābhabhūmiyam (=jhānassa adhigamāvatthāyam—Tīkā).° dvinnam pana samādhīnam idam nānākaraṇam° yathā nāma daharo kumārako ukkhipitvā ṭhapiyamāno punappunam bhūmiyam patati evam eva upacāre uppanne cittam kālena nimittam ārammaṇam karoti kālena bhavaṅgam otarati.° yathā nāma balavā puriso āsanā vuṭṭhāya divasam'pi tiṭṭheyya evam eva appanāsamādhimhi uppanne cittam saki bhavaṅgavāram chinditvā kevalam'pi rattim kevalam'pi divasam tiṭṭhati.

The d of the kārikā may be explained in another way. Brahman is described here by such words as aja, anidra, etc., but being beyond speech and mind it cannot be done so. This is said: nopacāraḥ kathañcana '(But) in no way there is any figurative (or metaphorical) expression (upacāra). See BSB, p. 44:

sa punah päramäithikah svabhävah sarvadharmänäm nirvikalpasyaiva jäänasya gocaro veditavyah. sacet punar yathaiväbhiläpo yesu dharmesu yasmin vastuni pravartate tadätmakäs te dharmäs tad vastu syät. evam sati bahuvidhä bahavah svabhävä ekasyaikasya vastuno bhaveyuh. tat kasya hetoh. tathähy ekasmin dharma ekasmin vastuni bahuvidhä bahavo bahubhir abhiläpaih prajäaptaya upacäräh kriyante.°

The following two kārikās say that this state of becoming Brahman is samādhi:

## 37

sarvābhilāpavigataḥ sarvacintāsamutthitaḥ ( supraśāntaḥ sakṛjjyotiḥ samādhir acalo 'bhayaḥ ()

'It is intense abstract concentration (samādhi) which is beyond all expression. and above all thoughts, very calm and full of light burning once for all, unwavering and without fear.

In Buddhism there is a particular samādhi called acala (MVt, 1 580).

- 1 anabhilāpya = okathya, AK, ii. 243. See IV. 24.
- 2 III. 38\*: cintā yatra na vidyate.
- 3 III. 36', IV 81 with note.

## 38

graho na tatra notsargaś cintā yatra na vidyate I ātmasaṃsthaṃ tadā jñānam ajāti samatāṃ gataṁ II

'Where there is no thought 1 there is neither apprehension or abandonment (of any object). At that time the mind

(jñāna=citta)<sup>2</sup> rests in itself, is unborn and attains to the state of sameness.'3

In this state the mind does not apprehend or abandon any of its objects and as such rests in itself (ātmasaṃstha).

The word ātman in ātmasaṃstha here means 'itself' (svarūpa) and not 'soul' (paramātman or Brahman) as distinct from the mind (jāāna). Cf. BG, VI. 25: ātmasaṃsthaṃ manah kṛtvā na kiñcid api cintayet 'having made the mind resting in itself one should not think of anything.' Nīlakaṇṭha writes here in his ṭīkā on the word ātmasaṃstha: ātmani svarūpe saṃsthā sthitir yasya.

This ātmasaṃstha jñāna is, in fact, in other words, vijñaptimātra or vijñānamātra of the Buddhist Vijñānavādins. The word vijñānamātra means 'simply vijñāna,' and the state of being so is vijñānamātratā. When the vijñāna does not apprehend any object whatsoever and as such rests only in itself this state is called vijñānamātratā. Says V a s u b a n d h u (Tk. 28, ViS, p. 584):

yadā tv ālambanam jūānam naivopalabhate tadā ı sthitam vijūānamātratve grāhyābhāve tadagrahāt ॥

LA, p. 169:

yadā tv ālambyam artham nopalabhate jñānam tadā vijñaptimātravyavasthānam bhavati. vijñapter grāhyābhāvād grāhakasyābhāvaḥ. tadagrahanān na pravartate jñānam.

This is referred to in the following stanza of the KU, II. 3.10:

yadā pañcāvatisṭhante jñānāni manasā saha ! buddhiś ca na viceṣṭate tām āhuḥ paramāṃ gatim ॥

See III. 32, IV. 96, with notes.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> See III. 2; IV. 77, 80, 93, 95, 100. It is to be noted in these kārikās that ajāti or anutpatti and sama, or sāmya or samatā are always used together. Cf. this with the quotation of MV in the note on III. 2

In the Upaniṣads it is well-known that Brahman is vijñāna (BU, III. 9. 28; TU, II. 5 1, III. 5. 1., etc., vijñānamaya=vijñāna) or jñāna (TU, II. II). This vijñāna or jñāna is ātmasaṃstha jñāna or vijñānamātra.

For ātmasamstha jñāna see ChU, VII. 24. 1-2:

"Where one sees nothing else, hears nothing else, understands nothing else, that is the Infinite (bhūman).

'Sir, in what does the Infinite rest?'
'In its own greatness,—or not even greatness.'"

It is to be noted that in the beginning of the present chapter (III. 2) the author proposed 'ato vakṣyāmy akārpaṇyam ajāti samatām gatam,' here in the present kārikā he concludes the subject.

4 See my paper Evolution of Vijñānavāda in IHQ, X, 1934, pp. 1 ff.

That samādhi which is nirvikalpa is further described in the next kārikā:

39

asparśayogo nāmaiṣa durdarśaḥ sarvayogibhiḥ l yogino bibhyati hy asmād abhaye bhayadarśinah l

'This is what is called 'contactless concentration' (asparśa-'yoga), very difficult to be realized by all yogins; the yogins shrink from it seeing fear where (in fact) there is no fear.'

For asparśayoga see IV. 2.

The Commentator explains the second half of the kārikā saying that though there is no fear in this yoga yogins (of lower order) are afraid of it thinking it to be one's own destruction

(ātmanāśarūpa). These people have no discrimination (avivekin), and so they have fear though there is no fear.

Vidyāraņya quotes this kārikā in his PD, II. 29, introducing it (II. 28) thus:

gaudācāryā nirvikalpe samādhāv anyayoginām ( sākārabrahmaniṣṭhānām atyantam bhayam ūcire ()

Now the author proceeds to say that for the yoga referred to the control of mind is absolutely necessary, on which depend the absence of fear, and such other things:

### 40

manaso nigrahāyattam abhayam sarvayogiņām ! duhkhakṣayaḥ prabodhaś cāpy akṣayā śāntir eva ca #

'The absence of fear, the destruction of misery, the awaking, as well as the eternal peace of all yogins depend on the control of mind.'

The next kārikā shows how the mind can gradually be controlled without difficulty:

## 41

utseka udadher yadvat kuśāgrenaikabindunā t manaso nigrahas tadvad bhaved aparikhedatah 1

'The control of mind without great pains is like the draining out of a sea by drops with the point of a kuśa grass.'

The first half of the kārikā refers, according to Madhusūdana Sarasvatī (BG, VI. 23) and Rāmakṛṣṇa, a commentator of PD (XI. 109), where this

kārikā is quoted, to an old story, (cf. *Tiṭṭibhopākhyāna*, HU, pp. 78-79) which runs, as given by Madhusūdana Sarasvatī, as follows:

Once upon a time the sea carried off with its waves the eggs of a bird which were laid on the beach. The bird got angry and determined to dry it up. He began to take out the water drop by drop with the tip of his beak and he could not be dissuaded from it by the birds related to him. In the mean time the divine sage Nārada came there. He, too, asked him to turn back, but in vain. The bird said that anyhow he would dry up the sea either in this or in the future life. Fortunately Nārada became very kind to him, and sent there Garuḍa, the lord of birds, for his help. Owing to the wind produced by the flapping of the wings of Garuḍa the sea began to dry up and thus being frightened gave back the eggs to the bird.

The substance of the kārikā is that it is with determination and perseverance that mind is gradually controlled.

The author now suggests the means for controlling the mind:

## 42

upāyena nigṛhṇīyād vikṣiptaṃ kāmabhogayoḥ I suprasannaṃ laye caiva yathā kāmo layas tathā II

'By the means' one should control it (mind) when it is distracted in desire and enjoyment, and also when it remains at ease in the sleeping state, for the sleeping state is as (bad) as desire is.'

Kārikās III. 42-46 are quoted and explained by Madhusūdana Sarasvatī in the commentary on the BG,

VI. 26, and III. 44-45 a-b by S a dānanda in his VeS, §§32-33. According to the former kāma 'desire' is the state of thinking of, or longing for enjoyment (cintyamānāvasthā), while bhoga 'enjoyment' is the state of enjoying the desired things (bhujyamānāvasthā). Laya 'sleeping state' is, in his opinion, deep sleep (suṣupti), as supported by G a u ḍ a pā d a himself (III. 35), but S a dānanda explains it by 'sleep' (nidrā). Laya causes mental inactivity, and corresponds to the state called mūḍha 'infatuated' in the yoga philosophy. See V yās a on YS, I. 1.

The means referred to above are as follows:

#### 43

duḥkham sarvam anusmṛtya kāmabhogān nivartayet l ajam sarvam anusmṛtya jātam naiva tu paśyati l

'Repeatedly remembering that all is misery one should turn back (one's mind) from desires and enjoyments.¹ Indeed repeatedly remembering that all is unborn one does not see anything born.'

The second half of the kārikā implies that when everything is unborn and consequently has no existence in reality there is no object for one's desire and enjoyment.

<sup>1</sup> Or we may write for 'one should, etc.,' 'one should keep back (from the mind) desires and enjoyments' Thus, as says M ad h us  $\bar{u}$  dana S ar as vat  $\bar{\iota}$  (BG, VI. 26),  $k\bar{u}$  and  $k\bar{u}$  in the  $k\bar{u}$  may be explained as accusative plural or ablative singular.

## 44

laye sambodhayec cittam viksiptam samayet punah I sakasāyam vijānīyāc chamaprāptam na cālayet II

'One should awaken the mind when it is in the state of

sleep; when distracted one should pacify it again. One should also investigate if it is with the evil passions (sakaṣāya). And (finally) when it reaches the state of equanimity one should not cause it to move.

As regards the control of mind there are four impediments enumerated in our kārikās (III. 42-45) of which viksepa 'distraction' and laya 'sleep' have already been mentioned also in kārikā 42, the other two being kasāya and sukha-, or according to some (VeS, §33) rasa-āsvāda. The last term will be explained in the next kārikā (45). We are concerned here with kasāya. It means here stabdhībhāva 'becoming stiffened' Madhusūdana Sarasvatī as Sadānanda would explain (loc. cit.). The primary meaning of kaṣāya is 'decoction,' so to say, of evil passions (rāga, dveṣa, moha). Śańkara explaining myditakasāya in ChU, VII. 26. 2, writes: vārkṣādir iva kaṣāyo rāgadveṣādidoṣaḥ. It causes the stiffness of mind, owing to which it cannot be fixed on the object. Thus the kaṣāya, i.e., the evil passions, being the cause of stabdhibhava, is explained by those authors to mean stabdhībhāva. We may, however, take the word in its actual sense, i.e., the evil passions.

Cf. MSA, XIV, 9c-d-10a-b:

līnam cittasya gṛḥṇīyād uddhatam śamayet punaḥ I śamaprāptam upekṣeta tasınin nālambane punaḥ I

See also XIV. 11.

For samaprāpta in d which gives better sense (cf. samayet in d of the kārikā) and is supported by VeS, with its Tīkā Vidvanmanoranjanī, \$33 and MSA quoted above, the reading found in editions and a very large number of MSS is samaprāpta. It means one that has reached the state of equilibrium. Madhusūdana Sarasvatī takes the word sama in the sense of Brahman.

45

nāsvādayet sukham tatra niḥsaiigaḥ prajñayā bhavet l niścalam niścarac cittam ekīkuryāt prayatnatah l

'There (in practising yoga) he should not enjoy happiness.¹ By wisdom² he must be (then) free from all attachment. If the mind which is (thus) fixed goes out, by endeavour he should so do as to make it remain only in itself.'

On ekīkuryāt 'should make one' the Commentator says: citsvarūpasattāmātram evāpādayet. Cf ekībhavati, BU, IV. 4.2; ekibhūta, MāU, 5.

- There is a feeling of happiness from that condition of mind in practising yoga, and it should be avoided as it is an impediment.
  - <sup>2</sup> Or, discrimination.

E

The next kārikā says that when the mind is thus completely controlled or suppressed (niruddha) and as such is free from all movements and does not perceive anything it becomes Brahman:

46

yadā na līyate cittam na ca vikṣipyate punaḥ l aninganam anābhāsam niṣpannam brahma tat tadā l

'When the mind is not in the state of sleep, nor is distracted again, and as such has no movement nor any senses-image, then it becomes Brahman.'

See III. 35.

The first half refers to two states laya corresponding to mūdha and vikṣepa corresponding to vikṣipta in the V y ā s a's commentary on YS, I. I. See III. 42. See also anidra and

asvapna in III. 36. The Commentator explains anābhāsa saying that it does not appear in the form of any of its objects which are imaginary (na kenacit kalpitena viṣayabhāvenāvabhāsate). Ābhāsa is praticchāyā 'reflection'. See BAP. V. 36. Or it may be taken in the sense of 'appearance,' namely, the appearance of any object.

On d the Commentator says: yadaivamlakşanam cittam tadā nispannam brahma brahmasvarūpena nispannam cittam bhavatīty arthah. Cf. IV. 77 where he writes: cittasyeti yā mokṣākhyānutpattih and on IV. 80 cittasya niścalā calanavarjitā brahmasvarūpaiva tadā sthitir yaiṣā brahmasvarūpā sthitiś cittasyādvayavijnānaikarasaghanalakṣanā.

In this connexion the following may be quoted from the BA, IV. 15: cittasya brahmatādikam which BAP explains: cittasya phalam brahmabhūyādikam.

It is said here that the anigana and anābhāsa citta becomes Brahman. With this compare the following:

MU. VI. 24 (p. 143):

mānase ca vilīne tu yat sukham cātmasākṣikam ! tad brahma cāmṛtam śukram sā gatir loka eva ca !!

Mṛtyujidbhatṭāraka as quoted in SV, p. 99: nirābhāsam padam tat tu tat prāpya vinivartate;

LA: IV. 16:

cittamātram nirābhāsam vihāro baddhabhūmi ca <sup>1</sup> etad dhi bhāṣitam buddhair bhāṣante bhāṣayanti ca <sup>11</sup> X. 105 (p. 278).

cittamātram atikramya nirābhāse sthitam phalam (X. 110 (p. 279).

cittamātram atikramya nirābhāsam atikramet ! nirābhāsasthito yogī mahāyānam na paśyate !!

X. 257 (p. 299).

tadā yogī hy anābhāsam prajñayā pasyate jagat ! nimittam vastu vijñaptir manovispanditam ca yat ! atikramya tu putrā me nirvikalpās caranti te !!

X. 94 (p; 277).

etad vibhāvayan yogī nirābhāse pratisthate!
X. 235 (p. 296).

ālambālambayvigatam yadā paśyati saṃskṛtam !
niścitam cittamātram hi cittamātram vadāmy aham !
mātrāsvabhāvasaṃsthānam pratyayair bhāvavarjitam !
niṣṭhābhāvaḥ param brahma etām mātrām vadāmy aham !
III. 25.26.

See also LA, p. 126: matpravacane punar mahāmate vikalpakasya manovijñānasya vyāvṛttir nirvāṇam. Śankara on BU, IV. 3.7 (p. 587): vijñānasya nirvāṇam puruṣārthaḥ.

· See III. 35, IV. 29 (comm.: ajātam yac cittam brahmaiva jāyate), 48, 77, 80.

The citta that becomes Brahman is described in the next kārikā:

# 47

svastham śāntam sanirvāṇam akathyam sukham uttamam l ajam ajena jñeyena sarvajñam paricakṣate l

'They say it rests in itself <sup>1</sup> and is calm having  $nirv\bar{a}na$ ; it is unspeakable and the highest bliss, unborn, and (identical) with the knowable, which is also unborn, and is all-knowing.'

See III. 33, IV. 1.

The word nirvāṇa has different meanings, such as 'delight', 'extinction', 'cessation', 'disappearance', 'calmed', 'quieted'.

We may take it here in the sense of 'extinction'. The extinction of mind means the disappearance of its function of thinking (manana or cintana), in other words, the amanībhāva of manas referred to above (III. 31), and in MU, VI. 34. or vilaya of manas in MBU p. 12. This is also called unmanībhāva (BBU, 4), vṛttikṣaya of citta (MU, VI. 34. p. 178), and the nirodha of vijñāna (=nirvāṇa) in DN, I. 223 (viññānassa nirodhena).

Cf. YV, III. 67.8:

spandād bhavati citsargo niḥspandād brahma śāśvatam ! See also MU, VI. 24 (p. 143) :

mānase ca vilīne tu yat sukham cātmasākṣikam tad brahma cāmṛtam śukram sā gatir loka eva ca For sarvajña see III. 36.

The author proposed in the beginning of this chapter (III. 2) to speak of non-origination (ajāti). Now having done so mainly with regard to Jīva and partly also to other things he concludes thus:

48

na kaścij jāyate jīvaḥ sambhavo 'sya na vidyate l etat tad uttamaṃ satyaṃ yatra kiñcin na jāyate ll¹

iti gaudapādīya āgamaśāstre 'dvaitākhyam tṛtīyam prakaraṇam samāptam.

'No individual soul is born, nor is there any possibility of it. This is that highest reality where nothing is born.

Here ends, in the Agamasastra of Gaudapada, Book Three called 'Non-duality'.

### BOOK IV

The proposition was enunciated (III. 2), discussed (III), and finally established in the last line of the last kārikā of the last Book, and it will further be affirmed later on (IV.71) that there is nothing that originates, and this is the highest truth. In order to further elucidate this view the author now begins the present Book of his Āgamaśāstra.

Its first two kārikās form what is known in later Sanskrit works as mangalācaraṇa 'salutation, benediction, or prayer for success.' The first kārikā is as follows:

jñānenākāśakalpena ¹ dharmān yo gaganopamān ² ι jñeyābhinnena³ sambuddhas tam vande dvipadām varam II

'Who has perfectly understood the elements of existence (dharma) that are like the sky, through the knowledge (jñāna) which is not different from its object (jñeya) and is also like the sky, to him, to the greatest of men, I pay my homage.'

The author here pays his homage to dvipadām vara 'the greatest of men.' Who is this dvipadām vara? The word dvipad (RV, X. 165.1: śam no astu dvipade śam catuṣpade) or dvipada literally 'biped' means in such cases 'man.' Words such as dvipadām vara or dvipadānām uttama (or agra) or dvipadottama (Pali dvipad'uttama) in compound are all synonymous. They are used both as adjectives and nouns.

<sup>1</sup> IV.96 with S.

<sup>2</sup> IV.91.

<sup>3</sup> III.33: IV.88.

As an adjective dvipadām vara is found in MB, Vanaparvan, 51.45 (:naiṣadho dvipadām varaḥ) and also in Ādiparvan, 220.36 (with reference to Dhṛtarāṣṭra: abhiṣṭauṣi ca yat kṣattuḥ samīpe dvipadām vara). In Buddhist literature, both Sanskrit and Pali, dvipadottama or dvipad'uttama in Pali or any one of the synonyms mentioned above is used to mean the Buddha (AP, 1; MSt, p. 60, l. 25; SNt, 83, 995, 998; MVt², § 267; SS, p. 8, 57, here in the last place not less than thirteen times). Narottama (Pali nar'uttama) and puruṣottama (Pali puris'uttama) are also used specially for the Buddha [SNt, 544 (see DP, 78) 1021; MVt,² § 1,40; MVu, Vol. II, pp. 194, 199, 232, 266].

On the other hand  $\hat{S}$  takes dvipadām vara to mean puruṣo-ttama in the sense of  $\hat{N}$  a r  $\bar{a}$  y a  $\bar{n}$  a.  $\bar{b}$ 

Now, which of them, the Buddha or Nārāyaṇa, is really meant by the author himself can be decided if we consider the subject matter of the kārikā.

There are mainly two points to be discussed here. First, jāāna 'knowledge' is said to be ākāśakalpa 'like the sky,' and again it is not different from the jāeya 'the knowable,' i.e., the object of knowledge. And second, the dharmas, 'elements of existence' or 'things or objects,' are also gaganopama 'like the sky,'

What are we to understand by the statement that jñāna is like the sky? One characteristic of jñāna, according to both our author and the Vijñānavādins, is that it is asanga (IV. 72, 96) 'having no attachment, contact, or relation,'

<sup>4</sup> Such instances are there many. See I. 50.27.

or doipada is found in Brahmanic literature to mean Nārāyaṇa. But thanks to a friend who points out that doipadām varistha which, in fact, is the same as doipadām vara is applied at least once to Nārāyaṇa (MB, Sāntiparvan, 343. 1). But it is to be noted that though here it refers to Nārāyaṇa, no doubt, this Nārāyaṇa is not God (īśvara), but a sage (rsi) and hence a man, though an incarnation of the former.

i.e., it does not relate itself to its object, it does not cognize any object (agraha, III. 32), there being no object whatsoever. See IV. 26, 27, 72, 96, 99, and the following from LA, p. 157: asangalakṣaṇaṃ jñānaṃ. 6 Now jñāna being asanga is compared here with the sky which is also asanga. See BAP, p. 359: evam° niṣprapancatvād ākāśavad asangam anāspadam aśesam viśam utpaśyāmah. 8

As regards the absence of difference between jñāna and jñeya it is a well-known fact that this view is maintained by Vijñānavādins. According to them there is no reality in external things. Knowable is, in fact, inside being the transformation of vijñāna, and only appears to be outside. Dinnāga says in his Ālambanapanīkṣā, 6 (quoted by Śańkara in his commentary on BS, II. 2.28 and by Kamalaśīlain his Pañjikā on TS, p. 582: yad antarjñeyarūpam tad bahirvad ababhāsate<sup>9</sup>. And Dharmakīrt ti formulates it in his PV,<sup>10</sup> fol. 274a, 1.7 in the following

- Sometimes there is made a difference between jñāna and vijñāna as the following passages of the same work (LA) will show saying that jñāna is asaṅga; p. 157: tatrotpannapradhvaṃsi vijñānam anutpannapradhvaṃsi jñānam; asaṅgalakṣaṇaṃ jñānam viṣayavaicitryasaṅgalakṣaṇaṃ ca vijñānam; asaṅgasvabhāvalakṣaṇaṃ jñānam; aprāptilakṣaṇaṃ jñānam; ASP, p. 399: asaṅgalakṣaṇā subhūte prajñāpāramitā. See also MV, p. 533; nimittālambanaṃ vijñānaṃ, jñānena hi śūnyatālambanena bhavitavyaṃ, taccānutpādarūpam eveti. See IV. 96, notes.
- <sup>7</sup> As the editor, Poussin, has pointed out, this reading is supported by the Tibetan version where we have: lhag.pa.med.pa(asarga). gnas.med (anāspada).
  - 8 See also BA with BAP, IX. 155.
- The other half runs as follows: so 'rtho vijñānarūpatvāt tatpratyayatayāpi ca. See also TS, p. 582:

nīlapītādi yaj jūāne bahirvad ababhāsate | tatra satyam ato nāsti vijūeyam tattvato bahiḥ ||

The book in its original Sanskrit is not yet found, but there is a Tibetan translation called *Tsad.ma.rnam.par.nes.pa (Pramāṇaviniścaya)* in Tanjur, Mdo, G, fols. 250b. 6—329b.1. Cordier, III, p. 437.

line which is widely quoted<sup>11</sup> in Brāhmanical works in discussing vijāānavāda, a common subject for philosophical discussions found in them<sup>12</sup>:

sahopalambhaniyamād abhedo nīlataddhiyoļi 122

'On account of the regularity of the simultaneous perception of the blue and its knowledge there is no difference between them.'

This theory is based on such utterances of the Buddha as the following:

cittamāttam bho jinaputrā yad uta traidhātakam.14

'O the sons of Jina, the three planes are only mind.'

The following may also be quoted in this connexion: Vk,1: vijnaptimātram evaitad; LA, X. 77: vijnaptimātram tribhavam.

- 11 Poussin has shown it in his Le Buddisime d'après les sources brahmaniques in Le Muséon, N. S. 1901, pp. 181-82; Anandagiri and Vācaspati (Bhamatī) on BS, II. 2. 28; Tātparyaṭīkā, p. 457; Slokacārttika (ṭṭkā), 290; Nyāyakandalī, p. 126; Advaitabrahmasiddhī, (Bib. Ind.) p. 93; Vivaraṇaprameyasaṇgraha, p. 75. See also IHQ, Vol. IX, No. 4, 1933, pp. 979-80.
- 12 For instance, MD with Sabara, I. 1.5; MSV, Nirālambavāda and Sānyavāda, pp. 217-345; BS with S. II. 2. 23.
  - 13 The Tibetan version runs:

lhan.cig.dmigs.pa.nes.paḥi.phyir | sio.dan.de.blo.gshan.ma.yin |

See IHQ, IX, pp. 279 ff. and PVk<sup>2</sup>, II. 388-391:

sakītsamvedyamānasya niyamena dhiyā saha!
viṣayasya tato 'nyatvam kenākārena sidhyati (
bhedas ca bhrāntavijāānair dṛṣyetendāv ivādvaye!
samvittiniyamo nāsti bhinnayor nīlapītayoh (
nārtho 'samvedanaḥ kascid anartham vāpi vedanam!
dṛṭam samvedyamānam tat tayor nāsti vivekitā (
tasmād arthasya durvāram jāānakālāvabhāsinaḥ!
jāānād avyatīrekitvam" (

<sup>14</sup> DS, p. 49; SS, p. 19; TA<sup>1</sup>, p. 18. For further details see Lévi: Matériaux pour l'étude du sustème Vijnaptimatra, Paris, 1932, p. 43.

etc. And from this it follows that in reality there is no external object as the foolish imagine, 15 it being nothing but the transformation of the mind (vijñānapariṇāma) owing to vāsanā. 16

In this kārikā jñeya 'object of knowledge' is to be taken in its ordinary sense and not in its particular significations, as in III.33, and IV.90.

We are now to discuss the second point, i.e., the dharmas 'elements of existence' are gaganopama. From the absolute point of view (paramārthataḥ) the external things appear only in their imposed forms having no reality at all. They have not their intrinsic existence (nihsvabhāva) and as such are void (śūnya) like the son of a barren woman. Hence they are gaganopama. '\(^1\) \( \bar{S} \) \( \text{n} \) t i d e v a says in his BA, IX.155:

sarvam ākāśasankāśam parigṛhnantu madvidhāh I

'Let those who are like me accept the doctrine that all is like the sky.'

Why is it like the sky? Prajñākaramati explains: because it is imposed and devoid of reality (samūropitatattva-śūnyatvūt). We read the following in ASP, p. 297:

evam eva subhūte sarvadharmā ākāšagatikā ānāgatikā agatikā ākāšasamāh, yathākāšam anāgatam agatam akṛtam avikṛtam anabhisaṃskṛtam asthitam avyavasthitam anutpannam aniruddham evam eva subhūte sarvadharmā anāgatā agatā akṛtā avikṛtā

<sup>15</sup> LA, p. 285:

bāhyo na vidyate hy artho yathā bālair vikalpyate | vāsanair luditam cittam arthābhāsam pravartate ||

16 Tk, 1:

ātmadharmopacāro hi vividho yaḥ pravartate | vijnānapariṇāmo'sau" ||

Sthiramati writes here in his bhāṣya: dharmāṇām ātmanas ca vijāānaparināmād bahirabhāvāt,

BAP, p. 503 (with regard to anu): ato 'bhiniskṛṣyamāṇo niḥsvabhāvatayā ākāśaṃ śūnyam eva: See pp. 504-505,

anabhisaṃskītā asthitā asaṃsthitā avyavasthitā anutpannā aniruddhā ākāśakalpatvād avikalpāḥ.

See BAP, p. 395, quoted above, and specially our text, IV. 93.

Or because the dharmas are beyond enumeration (gaṇanā-samatikrānta), they are gaganopama.<sup>18</sup>

Or, it may be that as jāāna is asaāga and is thus like the sky, so are asaāga the dharmas, and as such they are like the sky. See IV. 96. That the sky is asaāga needs no explanation.

One of the grounds on which this theory is based is that the things are niḥsvabhāva, i.e., without their own nature and condition or state of being (svabhāva). And that which has not its own state of being is nothing but the sky and void (ākāśa, śūnua). 19

Or again, as in fact the things have naturally neither origination nor suppression, they are like the sky. See LA, X. 172:

aniruddhāḥ anutpannāḥ prakṛtyā gaganopamāḥ !

S does not explain here as to how jnana is akasakalpa and the dharmas are gaganopan a. He would, however, explain the non-difference of jnana and jnaya saying that jnaya refers to atman (or strictly atmans), and jnana is not different from atman.

- 18 ASP, pp. 278-279: sarvadharmā api subhūte cintyā atulyā aprameyā asamkhyeyā asamasamāḥ. sarvadharmā api subhūte samkhyeyā gaṇanāsamati-krāntavāt. rūpam api subhūte samasamam evam vedanā samjāā saṃskārā vijāānam api subhūte samasamam evam sarvadharmā api subhūte samasamā ākāšasamatvāt subhūte sarvadharmāṇām.
- BA, V. 12: durjanān gaganoparnān on which BAP writes satravo hi gagaņasamatvād aparyantāḥ.
- 19 See BAP, p. 503: ato 'bhiniṣkṛṣykmāṇo niḥsvabhāvatayā ākāśaṃ śūnyam eva; pp. 504-505: tat ko 'tra kāyaḥ. tasya pratyavekṣamāṇasya bhavati—ākāśasamo 'yaṃ kāyaḥ ° sarvam etad ākāśam iti p-aśyati °

Now the word dharma used here in this kārikā and not ess than twenty-two times in this Book, 20 requires some explanation. It is very widely used in such cases as the present one throughout Buddhist literature in Sanskrit and also in Pali.21 Figuratively it means a thing or object, a thing of which the senses or mind takes cognition and as such, it is synonym of such Sanskrit words as artha or padartha or visaya or prameya. Literally it has among others the sense of nature, character, peculiar condition or essential quality, in Sanskrit svabhāva or svalaksaņa. It is derived from Adhr 'to hold, maintain, preserve, keep.' Because a thing in whatever form it may be maintains its own characteristics or essential quality (svalaksana or svabhāva), it is called dharma. So we read in AKB, p. 6: laksanadhāranād dharmah (rani.gi.matshan. nid.hdzin.pahi.phyir.chos.te). See MV, pp. 304, 457. Buddhaghosa (AS, §94, p. 391 explains the term in the following words: (i) attano pana sabhāvam dhārentīti dhammā, (ii) dhāriyanti vā paccayehi, (iii) dhāriyanti vā yathāsabhāvato'ti dhamma.<sup>22</sup> According to it rasa, sparsa, etc., are dharmas. Only these are there and not also dharmins 'those endowed with or having a dharma,' as the Buddhists hold unlike such non-Buddhist philosophers as Naiyāyikas and Vaisesikas. according to whom earth, or jars, etc., are dharmins, while their qualities, i.e., hardness (kāthinya), etc., are dharmas. In Buddhist philosophy it is only the quality of tangibility called 'hardness' (kāthinya, sparša) that is regarded as existent, but

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>20</sup> IV. 1, 6, 8, 10, 21, 33, 41, 46, 53, 54, 58, 59, 81, 82, 91, 92, 93, 96, 98, 99. It is used also in II. 25 and III 1, but evidently in a meaning different from that in Book IV.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup> For instance, ASP, p. 39: sarvadharmā api devaputrā māyopamāḥ svapnopamāḥ; DP, 279 (Maggavagga, 7) sabbe dhammā anattā'ti.

It is thus translated in Ex., p. 50: "Dharmas may be defined as those states which bear their own intrinsic natures, or which are borne by causes in elation, or which are borne according to their own characteristics."

there is no entity excepting it that we call earth, or the element of earth. Āryadeva says in his CS, 309:

kathinā dṛśyate bhūmiḥ sā ca kāyena gṛhyate I tena hi kevalam sparśo bhūmir eşe ti kathyate II <sup>23</sup>

'It is seen that the earth is hard and that is perceived with one's body. Therefore it is said that the earth is only the quality of tangibility.'

Thus, as says Stcherbatsky in his Central Conception of Buddhism, p. 26, 'If we say "earth has odour, etc.," it is only an inadequate expression; we ought to say "earth is odour, etc.," since beside these sense-data there is absolutely nothing the name could be applied to."<sup>24</sup>

It is also to be borne in mind in this connexion that in the absolute truth there is nothing as avayavin 'one having portions' as in other systems. It is owing to this fact that expressions like the following are found in Buddhist works:

nāstīha sattva ātmā vā dharmāstv ete sahetukāh | 25

This theory of dharma seems to be exactly the same as that of the tattva of the Sānkhyas. The word tattva (tat-tva) literally

23 This is a reconstructed verse from Tibetan which runs:

sa , ni , brtan , shes , bya , bar , mthon | de , yan , lus , kyis , ḥdzin , par , ḥgyur | des , na , reg , pa , ḥbaḥ , shig , ḥdi | sa , ḥo , shes , ni , bya , bar , brjod ||

See V, 82; AK and AKVI, I. 35 (p. 69): \*pṛṭhivīdhātuḥ katamaḥ . khakkhaṭatvam iti vistaraḥ; MV, pp. 66-67: iha tu kāṭhinyādivyatirikta-pṛthivyādyasambhave sati na yukto viseṣyaviseṣaṇabhāvaḥ. \*evaṃ pṛthivyādināṃ yady api kāṭhinyādivyatiriktaṃ vicāryamāṇaṃ lakṣyaṃ nāsti, lakṣyavyatirekeṇa ca lakṣaṇaṃ nirāsrayaṃ tathāpi saṃvṛtir eveti. \*YB, 16 \*: khakkhaṭatvaṃ katamat, pṛthivī. This view is found also in the Garbhopaniṣad, 1: tatra yat kaṭhinaṃ sā pṛthivī.

24 He quotes here the following from AKV,<sup>2</sup> IX p 717: pṛthvī gandhavatīty ukte rūpa-gandha-sparéebhyo nānyad daréayituṃ śakyate. Cf. Soul Theoru, p. 742.

Quoted in MV, p. 355 as a saying of the Bhagavat.

means 'thatness,' i.e., 'the state of that (referring to a thing and hence it signifies 'nature (svabhāva)' or 'true natur Thus, in fact, tattva is a guṇa, yet each of the twenty-ficategories in the system is considered as a tattva (pañcavims tattva), and not tattvavat 'having tattva.' When the thr guṇas, viz., sattva, rajas, and tamas, are in equal co dition (sāmyāvasthā), they are collectively called prakrti. is itself a tattva, it has no tattva.<sup>26</sup> It consists in the thr guṇas, it has no guṇa, though sometimes even in authoritati works it is loosely said that it has three guṇas. Thus it is well-known fact that teachers belonging to other systems s that in Sāṃkhya there is no difference between a guṇa and guṇin or dravya 27 (guṇadravyayos tādātmyam), or betwe a dharma and a dharmin (dharma-dharminor abhedaḥ).<sup>28</sup>

Says Aśvaghoşa (BCK, XII. 76):

guṇino hi guṇānāṃ ca vyatireko na vidyate rūpoṣṇābhyāṃ virahito na hy agnir upalabhyate ॥

- 26 See Tattvayāthārthyadīpanī included in the Sāmkhyasamgraha (Chikhamba Sanskrit Series), pp. 72-93: tattvānīti tāntrikī samjītā. tadart cātmānātmavivekapratiyogyanuyoginas tattatpadārthāķ. teṣām bhāvaķ tatpadanimittāni puruṣatvaprakṛtitvādīni patīcavimṣatijātayaķ. dharmadhamabhedād vyaktayo 'pi tattvānīty ucyate.
- Vasuvandhu gives (AK, IX. 290) the following definition of draw rejecting that of the Vaisesikas: vidyamānam dravyam iti. Yaso mit adds: yat svalakṣaṇato vidyamānam tad dravyam. He does not accept position that smṛti, saṃskāra, icchā, etc., are guṇas as held by Vaiseṣi (Ibid). See AK, III. 100°-b. But Vijāān abhikṣu who is undoubte much influenced by the Nyāya and Vaiseṣika systems writes the follow in his commentary on SS, 1. 61: ayaṃ ca pañcaviṃśatiko gaṇo dravyarūpa edharmadharmyabhedāt tu guṇakarmasāmānyādīnām atraivāntarbhāvah. Cf. I. dharmadharmyabhedād dravyāṇām api tanmātratā smṛtā.
- 28 See Vijñānabhikşu on SS, II. 5 where the following quoted:

śaktiśaktimator bhedam paśyanti paramārthatah | abhedam cānupaśyanti yoginas tattvacintakāh | It may be noted in this connexion that V as u b and h u in his Vijāānamātrasiddhi applies the term dharma to the tattvas of the Sāikhyas (O. Rosenberg).<sup>29</sup>

It is not that in Brahmanical works the word dharma is not used in the above sense. For instance, see KU, I. 1. 21: anur eşa dharman. Yās ka (Nt, I. 20) writes sākṣātkṛtadharmāṇaḥ. Here the word dharman differs from dharma only in form and not also in sense, as the former, too, means artha or padārtha 'a thing.' Vācaspati explains in his Tātparyaṭīkā the word sākṣātkṛtadharman used by Vātsyāyana (NS, I. 1.7), saying sudṛḍhena pramāṇenāvadhāritā arthā yena sa sākṣātkṛtadharmā. Evidently he takes here dharman in the sense of artha. Vyāsa in his commentary on YS, II. 17, explains dṛśya by buddhisattvopārūḍhāḥ sarve dharmāḥ.

In our present Book here and in other places S takes dharma to mean ātman. But this seems to be forced. To imply ātman our author uses in every case ātman or jīva.<sup>31</sup> Why should he employ in this chapter dharma for it? Undoubtedly these two terms are well-known in their meanings. So there is no ground for giving preference to such a word as dharma in the sense of ātman. In all the twenty-two cases in the present Book dharma is easily construed in the sense of 'a thing,' literally 'an element of existence' as in Buddhist literature. But while in some of them S takes the word to mean ātman, in others he could not do so. In some cases he did not explain the word at all, and certainly the meaning ātman cannot be accepted

<sup>29</sup> Stcherbatsky: The Central Conception of Buddhism, p. 27, n. 2.

<sup>31</sup> The commentator, S, explains the word dharma here saying ātmākhya dharma. Undoubtedly ātman is a dharma as we have seen. But certainly it is not the actual meaning of the word though it may be implied with reference to the context. See also KU, II. 1. 14: evaṃ dharmān pṛthak pasyan.

<sup>31</sup> See for ātman I. 12; II. 12, 17; III. 3, 4, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14; for jīva I. 16; III. 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 11, 13, 14, 48; IV. 63, 68, 69, 70.

in them. For instance, in the text sarve dharmā mṛṣā svapne (IV. 33) the word dharma can in no way mean ātman. In two cases he explains it saying hastyādīn bāhyadharmān (IV. 41), and bāhyadharmāḥ (IV. 54). Once he writes ātmāno 'nye ca dharmāḥ (IV. 58). In one case (IV. 82), however, he gives the actual sense, i.e., vastu 'thing.'32

It can further be shown from the words of the author himself that in meaning dharma and bhāva (=vastu=padārtha) are identical. See the following passages:

- (i) ajätasyaiva bhāvasya (III.  $20^a$ ) and ajātasyaiva dharmasya (IV.  $6^a$ ).
- (ii) ajāţo hy amṛto bhāvaḥ (III.  $20^\circ$ ) and ajāto hy amṛto dharmaḥ (IV.  $6^\circ$ ).
- (iii) svabhāvenāmṛto yasya bhāvaḥ (III.  $22^{c-d}$ ) and svabhāvenāmṛto yasya dharmaḥ (IV.  $7^{c-d}$ ).

It is to be noted that while *bhāva* is used only in the second and third Books<sup>33</sup> of the work, *dharma* in the above sense is used only in Book IV, and this is very significant indicating the Buddhist relationship of the subject dealt with in it.

There is one thing more. It is said in the kārikā that he to whom the author pays his homage perfectly understood the dharmas. Here if he is meant to be Nārāyaṇa one would naturally ask: What is the authority for it? Where is it found that he actually did so? This question demands a reply from those who hold that Nārāyaṇa is referred to here. Not only what we have seen above with regard to the first kārikā, but also the whole chapter, as can be shown, is in favour of the Buddha.

<sup>37</sup> The text is: yasya kasya ca dharmasya, and S explains: yasya kasyacid vastunaḥ. This reading is in the MS ca of Anandashrama ed., the other readings add dvaya- before vartunaḥ.

<sup>33</sup> Kārikās II. 1, 13, 16, 17, 19, 29, 33; and III. 20, 22.

2

In the second kārikā the author salutes the teacher of the asparsayoga:

asparśayogo vai nāma sarvasattvasukho hitaḥ I avivādo 'viruddhaś ca deśitas tam namāmy aham II

'I salute him (who has) taught the asparśayoga which conduces to happiness of all beings and is beneficial and free from dispute and opposition.'

I construe the kārikā taking yena 'by whom' as understood, thus differing a little from the commentator, S, who says that it is the asparsayoga that is saluted here.

In the kārikā avivāda refers to the fact that our theory is not contradicted by theories of other schools, and aviruddha implies that it involves no self-contradiction or is not against any other position held by us.

Now what is the asparšayoga, by whom and where has it been taught? The word does not occur in the Upaniṣads, though S says on III. 39, where also it is described, that it is well-known in the Upaniṣads (prasiddham upaniṣatsu). See also III. 37, 38. The following is found in KU, II. 3. 10:

yadā pañcāvatisihante jñānāni manasā saha ! buddhiś ca na vicestate tām āhuḥ paramāṃ gatim #

'When the five (instruments of) knowledge stand still together with the mind, and when the intellect does not move, that is called the highest state.'

Similar statements are met with in other Upanisads. But though they in fact may point to what is called asparśayoga, as will presently be explained, it is not termed asparśayoga.

The word asparśayoga literally means the yoga in which there is no contact, or the faculty of perception by touch. The author himself says (III. 37) it is a samādhi 'profound or abstract concentration,' it is very difficult to realize. It points to what is asamprajāāta samādhi (YS, I. 2, 18, 51 with the scholiast Vyāsa),² or nirvikalpa samādhi (PD, II. 28) of yogins. But nowhere in their systems, so far as my information goes, it is called asparśayoga.³ Why is it that the word asparśa is used here?

I am inclined to think that it refers to the ninth or the last of the nine dhyānas or meditations called anupūrvavihāra (Pali anupubbavihāra) or the successive states of dhyāna which the Buddha taught and are found frequently in Buddhist texts.<sup>4</sup> They are as follows:

- I. Four rūpa dhyānas or the meditations of which rūpa 'matter' is the object, viz.—
  - (i) prathama dhyāna or the first stage of meditation.
  - (ii) dvitīya dhyāria or the second stage of meditation.
  - (iii) tṛtīya dhyāna or the third stage of meditation.
  - (iv) caturtha dhyāna or the fourth stage of meditation.
- II. The four arūpa dhyānas or the meditations of which the object is not matter, viz.—
- (i) ākāšānantyāyatana (Pali ākāsānañcāyatana) or the place of infinity of space.
- <sup>2</sup> Vyāsa explains (YS, I. 2) it: na tatra kiñcit samprajñāyata ity asamprajñātah 'as nothing is known there it is called asamprajñāta.'
- <sup>3</sup> Cf. asparśasamvitprāpti used in explaining svarūpalābha in the following line of the VV, p. 42: svarūpalābha samastakalpanottīrņatvād akṛtakaniravakāśa-niruttara-nistaraṅga-niravadhi-nirniketāsparśasamvitprāptir bhavati. This is kindly pointed out to me by Dr. S. N. Sen Gupta of the Lucknow University. The following occurs in the same work (p. 4) in the course of the explanation of mahūśūnyatāpraveśa: kulākulavikalpadośojjhito'vyapadeśyamahānirāvaraṇa-niratyaya-vedyavedaka-niryukto varṇāvarṇanirvarṇottīrṇaḥ sparśūsparśa-prathāparivarjita upacārāt paramākāśādyabhidhānair abhidhīyate.
- 4 AN, Vol. IV, pp. 410-448: nava yime bhikkhave anupubbavihārā°. nava yime bhikkhave anupubbavihārasamāpattio desissāmi, tam sunātha.

- (ii) vijāanānantyāyatana (Pali viāāāṇaācā°) or the place of infinity of pure consciousness.
- (iii) ākiācanāyatana (Pali ākiācaāāā) or the place of nothingness.
- (iv) naivasamiñā-nāsamiñāyatana (Pali nevasaññānāsaññā°) or the place neither of consciousness nor of unconsciousness.

And the ninth is samjñāveditanirodha (Pali saññāvedayitanirodha) or the cessation or complete suppression of consciousness and sensation.

As in the ninth or last stage of voga or meditation not only sensation or consciousness, but also all the mental properties or mentals (caitta or caitasika dharmas), headed by sparsa (Pali phassa) 'contact.' are restricted or suppressed with the citta or mind itself, it is called asparsayoga. It is to be noted that the word sparsa employed here implies also the other mentals of which it is the first. The cessation of vedanā is possible only when sparsa ceases, as is clearly shown in the SN, IV, p. 220 (XXXVI. 15.4): phassasamudayā vedanāsamudayo phassanirodhā vedanānirodho. It means that sparša is the cause of vedanā, so when there is sparša there is vedanā, and when there is no sparsa there is no vedanā.6 The fact that in this state of nirodha (which is the same as asamprajñāta or nirbija or nirvikalpa samādhi) the mind and its properties (citta and caitta or caitasika) completely cease to work is clearly described by Buddhaghosa in his VM, p. 552.7

It is said (III. 39) that asparsayoga is very difficult to realize. From this very fact the word asparsayoga may be explained

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> AAS, II. 2: phasso vedanā saññā catanā° cetasikā sabbacittasādhāraņā nāma.

For its explanation see Sthiramati on Tk, p. 20, 11, 1, 2, 7, 9, 10; p 28, 1, 18.

kā nirodhasamāpattīti. yā anupubbanirodhavasena cittacetasikānam dhammānam appavatti. See also SN, Vol. IV, p. 217 (=XXXVI. 11. 5): saññāvedayitanirodham samāpannassa saññā ca vedanā ca niruddhā honti.

quite in a different way. In Buddhist Sanskrit works there is frequent use of such words as sparsavihāra (MVt1, 8349, 8351; Tk. p. 28, ll. 18), sparšavihāratā (MVt1, 6288), and asparšavihāra (AAA, p. 326: Tk, p. 28, II, 17, 19; p. 30, II, 15, 20). Sthiramati explains the last word in his commentary on Tk. p. 28, l. 18, saying: sparšah sukham tena sahito vihārah sparśavihārah, na sparśavihāro 'sparśavihārah. He says that sparśa means sukha 'joy, content, ease, comfort'; sparśavihāra is a state with it; and asparśavihāra is its opposite. In Tibetan sparśavihāra is translated by bde.gnas.pa, literally the Sanskrit equivalent to which is sukhasthiti (or sukhāvasthiti) 'pleasant state.' In Pali sparšavihāra is phāsuvihāra in the same meaning.8 In this light asparsayoga in sense is nothing but asukhayoga (a-sukhayoga) meaning thereby 'a voga which is not one that can be attained with ease.' This explanation is fully supported by what we know of it in III. 39: It is very difficult to realize and yogins shrink from it seeing fear though in fact there is no fear.

We read in the present kārikā that this yoga conduces to happiness of all beings (sarvasattvasukha). This is found also in Buddhist works where it is said (SN, Vol. IV, p. 228=XXXIV. 19. 20)<sup>9</sup> that the highest bliss is felt in the saññāvedayitanirodha (or sammāvedayita° according to the Chinese version. sammā=samyg).

<sup>8</sup> It is, however, to be noted that, strictly speaking, Pali phāsu is not from Sanskrit sparša the Pali form of which is phassa. In Northern Sanskrit Buddhist works Pali phāsu is wrongly translated into Sanskrit by sparša. See the Pali Dictionary of Childers, p. 982. Sometimes in Buddhist Sanskrit sukhasparšavihāra is found for phāsuvihāra. It clearly indicates that the writers of the former did not think that mere sparšavihāra could imply the sense of phāsuvihāra.

<sup>9</sup> idhānanda bhikkhu sabbaso nevasaññānāsaññāyatanam samatikkamma saññāvedayitanirodham upasampajja viharati. idam kho ānanda etamhā sukhā aññam sukham abhikkantataram ca panītataram ca. See also the next paragraph (21) for the reply to a question raised here. Cf. AN, Vol. IV, pp. 414-418

It may, however, be observed here that considering the use of the word sparsa, BG, II. 14, V. 27, and the explanations offered there by S and other commentators the interpretation as given in the present case as well as in III. 39 by S cannot be rejected.

It is to be noted here that attempt has been made above to interpret the word asparśayoga in different ways, but it seems that the best interpretation may be found in Asanga's Yogācārabhūmi. After what is written above a transcription of that work has come to my hands and the following is quoted here from it:

[78b] katham nirodham samāpadyamānasya naivam bhavati aham nirodham samāpadye vā vyuttisihe vā. samāpattikāle nirabhisamskāreņa cittanirodhāt.°

katham nirodhād vyutthitas trīn sparšān spṛšati āninjyam 11 yad bhūyasā tasyāh samāpatter ākiñcanvam änimittam. trividhenālambanena vvuttisthate vyuttisthamānas bhavālambanena visayālambanena nirodhālambanena ca. vyuttisthamano yathakramam eva trin sparšan spršati. [79a] tatra bhavālambanena vyuttisthamānasya na bhavati cetasa iñjitatvam asmīty ayam asmīti bhavişyāmīti vistarah, ata āniñyam sparśam sprsatīty ucyate. visayālambanena vyuttisthamānasya na rāgakiñcanam bhavati na dvesakiñcanam bhavati na mohakiñcanam. tasmād ākincanyam sparšam spršatity ucyate. nirodhālambanena vyuttisthamanah sarvanimittānām amanasikārād ānimittam dhātum avalambate, tasmād ānimittam sparšam spršatīty ucvate.

<sup>(=</sup>XXXIV, 2-3): kim pan'etha (i.e., in nirvāṇa) āvuso sāriputta sukham yad ettha n'atthi vedayitan'ti. etad eva khv ettha āvuso sukham yad ettha n'atthi vedayitam.

This is made by Rāhula Sāńkṛtyāyana, and he has kindly given it to me. An edition of this work is undertaken by the present author for the Asutosh Sanskrit Series, Calcutta University.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> For the variants of this word see AK, IV. 107 (where different authorities are quoted); MV, pp. 334.5; AKV<sup>2</sup>, pp. 389 ff.

We know from it that in the stage of nirodhasamāpatti the citta or mind is completely suppressed, hence there is no experience whatsoever. But in the stage called vyutthāna 'rising up' one has three kinds of sparśa 'experience,' known as āniñiya, ākiñcanya, and ānimitta. The word sparśa in such cases means 'experience' or 'that which is experienced', \( \strict{\strict{sprś}} \) sprś meaning here 'to experience.' 12

Now, because in the yoga called nirodhasamāpatti there is no sparša of anything, it is rightly named asparšayoga.

It is said (III. 39°-d) of the asparsayoga that yogins or rather untrained ones shrink back from it, imagining fear where in reality there is no fear: yogino bibhyati hy asmād abhaye bhayadarsinah. But what is the cause of their fear? S rightly says that the so-called yogins think that it will annihilate the very self. Indeed, there is hardly any difference between a yogin in this state and a dead person, their respiration being completely stopped. So when the Blessed One entered that state, i.e., saññāvedayitanirodha before his parinirvāṇa, Ānanda took him to be dead. But the venerable Anuruddha said to him that that was not the case, the Blessed one only having entered the stage of the dhyāna called saññāvedayitanirodha. After a short time, however, He passed away. It is therefore quite natural that an untrained yogin should be afraid of it, as of death.

Yet there is a real difference between death and asparśayoga or saññāvedayitanirodha, and Buddhaghoşa has explained it in his VM, p. 558, quoting a passage from the Suttapiṭaka. It says that all the conditions in both of them are one and the same excepting this that in the latter the heat of the body is not

<sup>12</sup> See KnU, IV-2: te hy enan nedisiham paspisuh. [te hy enat prathamo vidāncakāra—this portion is grammatically defective and not in the *Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa*, Chapter X which forms the KnU]; 3: sa hy enan nedisiham pasparsa; sa hy enat prathamo vidāncakāra.

<sup>13</sup> ātmanāśarūpam imam yogam manyamānā bhayam kurvanti.

<sup>14</sup> Mahāparinibbānasutta, VI. 8-9 (=DN, Vol. II, pp. 156-158).

lost, that life does not come to an end, and that the organs of sense are not destroyed, while in the former all these are annihilated.

We have seen in the present kārikā that this yoga is taught by the Buddha. It cannot be denied that up to the eighth of those successive states of dhyāna (anupūrvavihāra) already explained, viz., 'neither-consciousness-nor-unconsciousness', there is nothing particularly Buddhist. For it is evident from Buddhist literature, both Pali and Sanskrit, that the Buddha's two teachers Ālāra Kālāma (Āḍāra Kālāpa) and Uddaka Rāmaputta (Rudraka Rāmaputra) knew the seventh and eighth of the dhyānas, respectively. The Buddha was, however, not satisfied with what he had from his teachers, and he started thereupon to seek after a still higher state and succeeded in realizing it. It is this state which is called sañāāvedayitanirodha or briefly nirodha.

There is one thing more which suggests that the asparsayoga was not originally taught in the Brahmanic system of yoga. It is said in the kārikā that this yoga is 'not disputed' (avivāda)<sup>16</sup> and 'not opposed' (aviruddha). It is implied, as said before, from these two words that in the acceptance of the asparsayoga by the Vedantists, among whom the author himself is included, there cannot be raised any dispute or opposition, for there is nothing to be opposed even from their own point of view.

Thus it is clear from what we have seen above that the real instructor of the asparsayoga, who is saluted here by the author, is no other than the Buddha.

Let us now follow what the author has to say in this Book (IV). The subject matter of it is a-jāti (=an-utpatti, an-utpāda) 'non-becoming' or 'non-origination,' or, in other words, the doctrine that there is nothing about which it can be said that it is produced.

MN, Vol. I, pp. 8-9 (Ariyapariyesanasatta, I. 3.6.); LV, Vol. I, pp. 238-239, 243-244; BCK, XII. 63, 83; K e r n: Manual of Buddhism, 1896, p. 55.
 See IV. 5.

There are two classes of teachers: one (i.e., the followers of the systems of the Sāṅkhya and the Vedānta¹) holding the doctrine of actual existence of an effect in its cause (satkārya-vāda), and the other (i.e., the Naiyāyikas and the Vaiśeṣikas²) maintaining the theory of non-existence of an effect in its cause (asatkāryavāda). The author refers to these two views in the third kārikā which runs as follows:

3

bhūtasya jātim icchanti vādinaḥ kecid eva hi I abhūtasyāpare dhīrā vivadantaḥ parasparam I

'There are only certain disputants who maintain that jāti 'origination' is of a thing which is already existent, while there are others of firm resolve who hold that it is of a thing which is non-existent.' Thus they dispute with each other.'

- 1 See SK, IX; BS, II. 1. 14-18 with Ś; Ś on BU, I. 2. 2, (p. 20); kāryasya hi sato jāyamānasya kāraņe saty utpattidaršanāt. Among the Buddhists the Vaibhāṣikas maintain satkāryavāda. See CŚ, IX. 15 and our text, IV, 11, note 1.
- <sup>2</sup> See NK, pp. 143 ff. Among the Buddhists Sautrāntikas and Yogācāras hold asatkāryavāda. CŚ, IX. 15.
- <sup>3</sup> The interpretation of the words  $bh\bar{u}ta$  and  $abh\bar{u}ta$  by  $\acute{s}$  in the text here is quite different from that in III. 23, and it is very remarkable.

The Ācārya now proceeds to mention in the next kārikā the doctrine of the Buddhists who subscribe to neither of these two views asserting absolute 'non-becoming' (ajāti) of things:

4

bhūtam na jāyate kincid abhūtam naiva jāyate I vivadanto 'dvayā hy evam ajātim khyāpayanti te II

'That which is already existent does not come into being, and that which is non-existent does not also come into being;

disputing thus the followers of the doctrine of advaya assert absolute non-becoming (ajāti).'

Before discussing the meaning of the kārikā it is to be noted that the reading that can reasonably be accepted in c is not vivadanto dvayā as in many editions, but vivadanto'dvayā with our MS. Me, and some editions. It is supported also by the commentary in those editions, as well as by the MS. Ka used in the Anandasram edition of 1900.

The word advaya in the kārikā is, in fact, identical in meaning with Advayavādin, which is well-known even to an ordinary reader of Sanskrit as one of the names for the Buddha.<sup>2</sup> Some of the commentators of Amk explain advaya in advayavādin as advaita.<sup>3</sup> But there is a marked difference between the two terms advaitavāda and advayavāda; while the former literally means the theory of non-difference, i.e., the non-difference between, or identity of (according to the school of \$) Jīva and Brahman, the latter means the theory of 'non-two', i.e., neither of the two extreme views.

The two (dvaya) or the two extreme views are as follows: The Buddha does not hold that anything exists, nor does he hold that it does not exist. He rejects both of these two extreme views and propounds his view taking a middle path (majjhimā patipadā or madhyamā pratipad). So according to

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Such as of Mahesacandra Pāla, Calcutta, Saka 1806; Durgācaraņa Sānkhyavedāntatīrtha, Calcutta, 1331, B.S.; and Gītā Press, Gorakhpur, 1993 V.S.

Amk, I. I. 14; MVt<sup>1</sup>, 23; DA, p. 95: buddhānam bhagavatām mahākārunikānām advayavādinām. In the *Index of words* to the last work, the word advaitavādin is wrongly written.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> For instance, B h ā n u j i d ī k ş i t a : advayam advaitam vadanty avasyam; K ş ī r a s v ā m i n : advayam vijñānādvaitam vadaty avasyam.

Advayavādin, the exact Tibetan equivalent of which is gnis. su. med. pa. gsun ba, and Chinese pu-êrh-yū, both literally meaning 'one who says not two' is misunderstood in the Sanskrit-Tibetan-English Vocabulary (Memoirs of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. IV, 1913), p. 2, for the word can no way mean 'not doubtful in his command' as it is explained there.

him nothing is existent, nor is anything non-existent; nothing comes into being (anutpāda), nor does anything disappear (anirodha); nothing is eternal (aśāśvata), nor has anything an end (anuccheda); nothing is identical (eka), nor anything differentiated (aneka); nothing moves hither (anāgama), and nothing moves thither (anirgama).

This advayavāda is found throughout the Buddhist sacred literature both in Sanskrit and Pali.<sup>5</sup> That the reading in c of the kārikā must be with the word advayāḥ and not dvayāḥ will

#### 4 So says Nāgārjuna, MV, p. 11:

anirodham anutpādam anucchedam aśāśvatam |
anekārtham anānārtham anāgamam anirgamam ||
yaḥ pratītyasamutpādam prapañcopaśamam śivam |
deśayāmāsa sambuddhas tam vande vadatām varam ||

5 astīti kāśyapa ayam eko'nto nāstīty ayam dvitīyo'ntah, yad anayor dvayor antayor madhyam iyam ucyate kāśyapa madhyamā pratipad dharmānām bhūtapratyavekṣā. KP, §60 (p. 90). See MV, p. 270.

yad bhūyasā kātyāyanāyam loko 'stitām vābhinivisto nāstitām ca tena na parimucyate. Kātyāyanāvavāda quoted in MV, p. 269.

So writes Nagarjuna:

kātyāyanāvavāde cāstī[ti] nāstīti cobhayam |
pratiṣiddham bhagavatā bhāvābhāvavibhāvinā || MK, XV. 7.
astitvam ye tu pasyanti nāstitvam cālpabuddhayaḥ |
bhāvānām te na pasyanti drasṭavyopasamam sivam || MK, V. 8.

sammādiţihi sammādiţihīti bhante vuccati, kittāvatā nu kho bhante sammādiţihi hotīti, dvayanissito khv āyam kaccāyana loko yebhuyyena atthitam ceva na'tthitam ca SN, II, p. 17 (XII. 15). lokasamudayam kho kaccāyana yathābhūtam sammappaññāya passato yā loke na'tthitā sā na hoti. lokanirodham kho kaccāyana yathā-bhūtam sammappaññāya passato yā loke atthitā sā na hoti\* sabbam atthīti kho kaccāyana ayam eko anto, sabbam natthīti ayam dutiyo anto, ete te kaccāyana ubho ante anupagamma majjhena tathāgato dhammam deseti. SN, II, p. 17 (XII. 15).

nityam iti kāśyapa ayam eko 'ntaḥ. anityam iti kāśyapa ayam dvitīyo 'ntaḥ. yad etayor dvayor nityānityayor madhyam tad arūpyanidarśanam° | ātmeti kāśyapa ayam eko 'ntaḥ. nairātmyam iti dvitīyo 'ntaḥ. yad ātmanairātmyayor madhyam tad.° samkleśa iti kāśyapa ayam eko 'ntaḥ vyavadānam ity ayam kāśyapa dvitīyo 'ntaḥ. yo'syāntadvayasyānupagamo (Text anugamaḥ but see

further be perfectly clear to anyone when one considers that in the preceding kārikā two classes of teachers are referred to, who hold the theory of origination (jātivāda). According to one of them the origination is of the existent, while in accordance with the other, it is of the non-existent. These teachers are dvaitins 'advocates of dualism', viz., the Sāmkhyas, the Naiyāyikas and the Vaiseṣikas. The teachers alluded to in the present kārikā are, however, quite of a different view, They do not discuss as to whether the origination is of the existent or of the non-existent, but assert that there is no origination at all (ajātim khyāpayanti te). Thus the teachers alluded to in kārikās 3 and 4 are different, though S takes them to be identical.

As is evident, the main subject of this chapter is the theory of non-origination (ajātivāda). In different systems of Indian philosophy it is held that things around us have their origination; in other words, they are produced; they have their causes, they themselves being their effect. But it is the Buddhists who hold quite a different view emphatically denying the origination of anything in the world. Thus the first sentence of Nāgārjuna's MK begins with anirodham

Tib. version: khas. mi. len. ciń°) 'nudāhāro 'pravyāhāra iyam ucyate kasyapa madhyamā pratipad dharmāṇāṃ bhūtapratyavekṣā. KP, pp. 86-88.

astīti nāstīti ubhe'pi antā suddhī asuddhīti ime 'pi antā |
tasmād ubhe anta vivarjayitvā madhye 'pi sthānam na karoti paņḍitaḥ ||
astīti nāstīti vivāda eṣa suddhī asuddhīti ayam vivādaḥ |
vivādaprāptyā na dukham prasāmyate avivādaprāptyā ca dukham nirudhyate||

SR, p. 30, quoted in MV, pp. 135, 270.

bhāvābhāvadarsanadvayaprasango yāvat tāvat saṃsāra ity avetya mumukṣubhir etaddarsanadvayanirāsena sadbhir madhyamā pratipad bhāvanīyā yathāvad iti. MV, p. 276. See the whole of chapter XV,

anutpādam<sup>6</sup> 'having neither origination nor suppression.' This anutpāda is thoroughly discussed and established in that work as in others. Let here be quoted only a few lines in translation from that book together with the commentary of Candrakīrtti (MK, I. I with MV, p. 12):

'Now...the Ācārya, thinking the facility in refuting nirodha, after utpāda is refuted, begins first with the refutation of the latter. Utpāda of a thing may be supposed by the opponents from a cause which may be either it itself, or something other than it, or both, or again, from one which is no cause at all. But in no way it can be justified. So he (the Ācārya) says:

"Nowhere and never are such things as are produced either from themselves, or from some other things, or from both, or from what is no cause at all." '7.

This non-origination is asserted again and again in the same work and sometimes in identical words:

na svato jāyate bhāvaḥ parato naiva jāyate । na svataḥ parataś caiva jāyate jāyate kutaḥ ॥

MK, XXI. 13. See XXIII. 20.

'A thing does not come into being from itself, nor from other (=not-itself), nor from both, itself and other. How can it come into being?'

- <sup>6</sup> For the order of these two words see Candrakīrtti (MV, p. 12): atra ca nirodhaya pūrvam pratisedha utpādanirodhayah paurvāparyāvasthāyāh siddhyabhāvam dyotayitum. vakṣyati hi (MK, XI. 3; MV, p. 221): pūrvam jātir yadi bhavej jarāmaraṇam uttaram°. Our author, Gaudapāda, too, has followed the same order in his widely quoted kārikā (III. 32): na nirodho na cotpattih.°
- 7 idānīm° utpādapratiṣedhena nirodhapratiṣedhasaukaryam manyamāna´ ācāryaḥ prathamam evotpādapratiṣedham āràbhate, utpādo hi paraiḥ kalpyamānaḥ svato vā parikalpyeta parata ubhayato 'hetuto vā parikalpyeta, sarvathā ca nopapadyata iti niścity āha;

na svato nāpi parato na dvābhyām nāpy ahetutah l utpannā jātu vidyante bhāyāh kvacana kecana|| . .

MK, I. 1; MV. p. 12.

Compare this with the following line from our kārikā, IV. 22 which speaks for itself:

svato vā parato vāpi na kiñcid vastu jāyate !

'Nothing is produced either from itself or from other.'

For further details one may be referred to MK, I and XXIII with MV; CS, XV. See also our kārikā, IV. 22.

That there is no jāti or utpāda 'origination' is thus maintained also in a short line of the BA, IX. 106:

evam ca sarvadharmāṇām utpattir nāvasīyate 18

'Thus the origination of all things is not known.'

The first half of the present kārikā is undoubtedly based on such statement as the following of Nāgārjuna (MK, I. 6):

naivāsato naiva satah pratyo'rthasya yujyate I asatah pratyayah kasya satas ca pratyayana kim II°

For the wording in b of the kārikā (abhūtaṃ naiva jāyate) see CŚ, 373<sup>d</sup> (XV. 23<sup>d</sup>): nābhūto nāma jāyate. See here also Candrakīrtti on CŚ, 366 (XV. 16): atrāha: jāto na jāyate ajāto 'pi na jāyate.<sup>10</sup> It may be noted here that in this book, too, the doctrine of non-origination is fully discussed.

Ś explains the first half of the present kārikā as follows:

bhūtam vidyamānam vastu na jāyate vidyamānatvād eva°. tathā abhūtam avidyamānam avidyamānatvān naiva jāyate śaśavisāṇavat.

'The thing which is already existent does not (again) come into being owing to its very existence. And the thing that is

- 8 BAP runs here: evam eva yathoditanyāyena sarvadharmāṇāṃ sarvabhāvānām utpattir utpādo nāvasīyate na pratīyate. See the same work, pp. 355 ff.: na ca svaparobhayahetunibandhanam ahetunibandhanam vā bhāvasya janmātipeśalam upapadyate. Here the subject is discussed to a great extent.
  - 9 See MA, VI. 58; MV, pp. 82-83.
- 10 Reconstructed from the Tibetan version: hdir. smras. pa | skyes. pa. mi. skye. la. ma. skyes, pa. yan. mi. skye. ste |

not existent does not come into being on account of its being non-existent, as, for instance, the horn of a hare.'11

Gaudapāda refers to the doctrine of ajāti in the present kārikā, and accepts it in the next which runs as follows:

5

khyāpyamānām ajātim tair anumodāmahe vayam l vivadāmo na taih sārdham avivādam nibodhata l

'We express our approval of ajāti which they declare; we do not dispute with them, and listen how there cannot be any dispute.'

It is to be noted here that G a u d a p ā d a is a Vedantist, and yet he accepts the doctrine of non-origination of the Advayavādins or Buddhists expressing his approval. He does not see any use disputing with them and invites apparently his Vedantist followers to listen to him as to why the view cannot be disputed.

Like the Sānkhyas, the Naiyāyikas, and the Vaiśeṣikas, etc., the Vedantists are originally believers in the doctrine of origination, as is evident from the BS, I. 1.2 (: janmādy asya yataḥ, 'From whom are the origination, etc. of this') which is based on such statements of the Upaniṣads as TU, III. 1.1: yato vā imāni bhūtāni jātāni tad Brahma, 'That is Brahman from whom these beings are originated.' The reality of this origination or creation is denied later on in the school of S in the absolute truth. This is due to the doctrine of G a u d a p ā d a who invites here his followers to listen as to how

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> Buddhapālita quoted in MV, p. 14: na svata utpadyante bhāvāḥ, tadutpādavaiyar!hyād atiprasangadoṭāc ca. na hi svātmanā vidyamānānām padārthānām punarutpāde prayojanam asti. atha sann api jāyeta na kadācin na jāyeta.

the non-origination doctrine of the Advayavädins can be approved.

Having thus introduced his readers to the subject he has to deal, the author now proceeds in the following kārikās to offer his arguments as to how the doctrine of jāti cannot be justified. He says:

6

ajātasyaiva dharmasya jātim icchanti vādinah ajāto hy amṛto dharmo martyatām katham eṣyati ॥¹

'Disputants are of opinion that there is birth only of that thing (lit. 'element of existence') which is unborn. But how is it that the thing which is unborn and (consequently) immortal should become mortal?'2

It means that the teachers of both the classes referred to in kārikā 3 are agreed upon the point that birth is possible of what is unborn; for what is already born does not take birth again, and so it is useless to think of the birth of such a thing. Our author says that the birth of an unborn one cannot be justified, and he offers the following arguments: It is accepted on all hands that what has no birth (ajāta) has also no death (amṛta). Now when you say that birth is of an unborn one, you have necessarily to admit that it has death; and so it follows that you also admit the death of an immortal

For the words jāta and ajāta see MK, XX. 12-14.

The kārikās 6, 7, and 8 of this Book are identical with the kārikās 20, 21 and 22 of the Book III respectively excepting only this that in kārikās III, 20 and 22 there is the word bhāva, while in IV. 6 and 8 the reading is dharma.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> According to S the second half of the kārikā ('But how is it that the thing which is unborn and immortal should become mortal') means, in fact, that how it should take birth in reality. He writes: svabhāvenāmṛto bhāvo martyatāṃ gacchati paramārthato jāyate. III. 22.

one. Now an unborn one is by its own nature immortal. And this death of the immortal one is utterly absurd.

The author continues in support of his above statement:

7

na bhavaty amṛtaṃ martyaṃ na martyam amṛtaṃ tathā l prakṛter anyathābhāvo na kathañcid bhaviṣyati ll¹

'The immortal does not become mortal and a mortal one does not also become immortal; for the change of nature can in no way be possible.'

The second half of the kārikā is repeated in kārikā IV. 29, and seems to have mostly been taken here from Nāgārjuna's MK, XV. 8, which runs as follows:

yady astitvam prakṛtyā syān na bhaved asya nāstitā i prakṛter anyathābhāvo na hi jātūpapadyate 11<sup>2</sup>

The author having shown here that nature does in no way change says in the next kārikā that if a thing which in its own nature is unborn (ajāta) and hence regarded as immortal (amṛta) comes into being (jāyate) and thus becomes mortal (martya), then owing to this very fact it cannot remain changeless. The point is that which is unborn or immortal by its own nature should remain always so. But if you say that the unborn takes

prakṛtau kasya cāsatyām anyathātvaṃ bhaviṣyati | prakṛtau kasya ca satyām anyathātvaṃ bhaviṣyati | XV. 9. kasya syād anyathābhāvaḥ svabhāvaś cen na vidyate | kasya syādanyathābhāvaḥ svabhāvo yadi vidyate | XIII. 4. kaḥ svabhāvaṃ prahāsyati | XXIII. 24. svarūpasyānyathābhāvāsambhavāt.

Candrakīrtti on CŚ, VIII. 4 (179),

<sup>1</sup> See III. 21, and the note 1 on IV. 6.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The following may also be quoted here from the same work:

birth, or the immortal becomes mortal, evidently it undergoes a change. But no change of nature is possible. The kārikā runs:

8

svabhāvenāmīto yasya dharmo gacchati martyatām kṛtakenāmītas tasya kathaṃ sthāsyati niścalaḥ 🏻 1

'How can he, accoding to whom a thing which is naturally immortal becomes mortal<sup>2</sup>, maintain that an immortal thing, when it becomes artificial<sup>3</sup>, will remain changeless?'

The following may here be quoted from Nāgārjun a's MK, XV. 1-2 in which one should note the word kṛtaka:4

na sambhavaḥ svabhāvasya yuktaḥ pratyayahetubhiḥ t hetupratyayasambhūtaḥ svabhāvaḥ kṛtako bhavet II svabhāvaḥ kṛtako nāma bhaviṣyati punaḥ kathaṃ I akṛtrimaḥ svabhāvo hi nirapekṣaḥ paratra ca II

- 1 See III. 22.
- <sup>2</sup> That is, takes birth. See note 2 on IV. 6.
- <sup>3</sup> The word kṛṭaka in the kārikā (a) is to be explained taking it as noun, i.e., kṛṭakatva, just as the word anādi in IV. 14 is evidently for anāditva. Ānandagiri lends his support writing (III. 22) kṛṭakeneti. kṛṭakatvasya, yat kṛṭakam tad anityam iti. ° Cf. Sāyaṇa who explains manasaspati (TA, VII. 6) as °patitva.
- It seems that our author had these karikas of Nagarjuna in his mind while writing his own and so he has unconsciously written krtaka instead of krtakatoa as is required.

In order to explain as to how nature (prakrti or svabhava) cannot change Gaudapāda proceeds to define it in the next kārikā:

9

sāṃsiddhikī svābhāvikī sahajāpy akṛtā ca yā l prakṛtiḥ seti vijñeyā svabhāvaṃ na jahāti yā II

'That is to be known nature (prakrti) which is self-existent,' natural, innate, not artificial and one that does not give up its own being.'

As regards svabhāva Candrakīrtti explains it following Nāgārjuna in his MV, pp. 264-265, that it is nothing but always non-origination (sarvadānutpāda eva). He says that by svabhāva we are to understand that which is independent of other (paranirapekṣa) and as such not artificial (akṛtrima), and thus having no existence before it does not come into being (not abhūtvā bhāvaḥ). Therefore the svabhāva of fire is nothing but its non-origination (anutpāda), and not its heat, because it depends on its cause and conditions, and comes into being after having no existence at first².

<sup>1</sup> The word sāmsiddhika may also mean that which comes into being simultaneously (saha-utpanna) as illustrated by Gauḍapāda and Māṭhara (Chaukhamba Sanskrit Series, No. 296) in their commentaries on SK, XLIII of Iśvarakṛṣṇa: tatra sāmsiddhikā yathā bhagavataḥ kapilasyādisarge utpadyamānasya catvāro bhāvāḥ sahotpannāh. The explanation of Śis as follows: samyak siddhiḥ saṃsiddhis tatra bhavā sāṃsiddhikī. yathā yoginām aṇimādya-iśvaryaprāptiḥ prakṛtiḥ sā.\*

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> MV, p. 265: sarvadānutpāda eva hy agnyādīnām paranīrapeksatvād akṣtrimatvāt svabhāva ity ucyate.

Now having shown that there is no origination of anything the author proceeds to say in the next kārika that there is also neither decay nor passing away:

10

jarāmaranam icchantas cyavante tanmanīsayā

'All things are by nature free from 'old age' (decay) and 'death' (passing away), So the persons who believe in 'old age' and 'death' are reborn owing to their that very thought.'

That there can be neither jarā nor maraṇa is very elaborately established by  $N\bar{a}$  gārjuna in his MK, XI. 3 ff. from which we cull the following two couplets (3 and 4):

pūrvam jātir yadi bhavej jarāmaraņam uttaram i nirjarāmaraņā jātir bhavej jāyeta cāmṛtah i paścāj jātir yadi bhavej jarāmaraņam āditah i ahetukam ajātasya syāj jarāmaraņam katham ii

For further details readers are referred to the original text of  $N\bar{a}$  g a r j u n a with MV.

The author attacks the doctrine of jāti from different points of view and refutes it in the following way referring first to the followers of the Sāmkhya system who hold the theory of actual existence of an effect in its cause (satkāryavāda).

11

kāranam yasya vai kāryam kāranam tasya jāyate ! jāyamānam katham ajam bhinnam nityam katham ca tat II

'(It is to be admitted by him) according to whom the cause itself is the effect, that it is the cause that takes birth (i.e., is

See notes on IV. 3 and SK, IX.

produced). And in that case how is it that the thing which takes birth and is thus different (from the effect) can be regarded as unborn (aja) and how it can be permanent?'

In the Sāńkhya system prakrti or pradhāna is held to be the first or original cause (mūla karaṇa). It is 'unborn' (aja) and permanent (nitya). From it other things are gradually produced. This view is criticized in this and the following kārikās by our author.

<sup>1</sup> The point is that there must be some difference between that which is produced and that which is not produced (jāyamāna and aja).

S explains the word bhinna in a different way saying that it means 'rent asunder', 'divided into parts' or 'opened' (vidima, sphutita) implying thereby 'subject to some change.' And that which admits of any kind of change cannot be permanent.

The identity of cause and effect may be viewed from two different points, viz., the cause is not other than the effect (kāryābhinnaṃ kāraṇam), or the effect is not other than the cause (kāraṇābhinnaṃ kāryam). But in neither case can the Sāmkhya system be defended, The object of the first viewpoint is shown in the present kārikā which says: If the cause is not different from the effect then it is to be admitted that it is the cause (and not the effect) that 'takes birth' (jāyate) and thus, if you accept it, the cause cannot be regarded as 'unborn' (aja), as you hold it to be.

Now, in order to avoid this difficulty one may follow the second point of view saying that the effect being not different from the cause the former is as aja as the latter; and thus one cannot say that the cause is not aja. The author, however, says in the next kārikā that this argument, too, cannot be accepted:

12

kāraṇād yad¹ ananyatvam ataḥ kāryam ajaṃ yadi I jāyamānād dhi vai kāryāt kāraṇaṃ te kathaṃ dhruvam II

'If you hold that the effect is also 'unborn' (aja), for there is no difference of it from the cause (which is aja), then, how is it, in your opinion, that the cause is permanent when the effect is produced?' <sup>2</sup>

- 1 The reading should be here yad and not yadi as discussed elsewhere.
- <sup>2</sup> Ś explains c saying that how it is that the cause being not different from the effect, that is, being produced, can be permanent: jāyamānād dhi vai kāryāt kāraṇam ananyan nityam dhruvam ca.

The author offers further grounds:

13

ajād vai jāyate yasya dṛṣṭāntas tasya nāsti vai l jātāc ca jāyamānasya na-vyavasthā prasajyate II

'There is no illustration (to give) for him who holds that a thing is produced from what is unborn<sup>1</sup>. (On the other hand, if it is maintained that) a thing is born from what is born, then there follows no finality, it leads to an endless series of causes (anavasthā).'

Here in the text in d na is to be taken with  $vyavasth\bar{a}$  (as  $na-vyavasth\bar{a} = avyavasth\bar{a} = anavasth\bar{a}$ ) and not with prasajyate.  $\dot{S}$  explains: na  $vyavasth\bar{a}$  prasajyate anavasth $\bar{a}$ na $\bar{a}$  sy $\bar{a}$ d ity artha $\dot{a}$ .

The second half of the kārikā means that if A is produced from B which you take as produced (jāta), by the very fact that it is produced it must have been produced

1 That is, existing from all eternity.

from one C, and C, too, in the same way must have been produced from one D, and so on. Thus it is impossible to ascertain the ultimate cause of a thing.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>2</sup> Cf. Candrakīrtti (MV, p. 15): na ca vidyamānasya punar utpattau prayojanam paśyāmah, anavasthām ca paśyāmah; AKV (quoted in MV, p. 13): utpannasya punar utpattau kalpyamānāyām anavasthāprasangah; MA (quoted in MV, p. 13): jātasya janma punar eva ca naiva juktam; SS, p. 262 (Irom ASP): kim punar āyuṣman subhūte utpanno dharma utpatsyata utānutpannah. subhūtir āha. nāham āyuṣman sāriputra utpannasya dharmasyotpattim icchāmi na cānutpannasyeti. CS, 260:

sambhavaḥ kriyate yasya prāk so'stīti na yujyate | sato yadi bhavej janma jātasyāpi bhaved bhavaḥ ||

In support of this  $aj\bar{a}tiv\bar{a}da$  the author offers further arguments:

14

hetor ādiḥ phalam yeṣām ādir hetuḥ phalasya ca l hetoḥ phalasya cānādiḥ katham tair upavarnyate li

'How can those who hold that the antecedent of a cause is its effect and the antecedent of an effect is its cause, describe that there is no beginning of the cause and the effect?'

In c anādi means 'absence of beginning' (āder abhāvaḥ). S explains it by anāditva. Cf. kṛtaka in IV. 8c.

Let us take here an example (IV. 20). As regards a seed (bīja) and its sprout (ankura) it is said that they have no beginning, for it cannot be ascertained as to whether the seed was first and then the sprout, or the sprout was first and then the seed, each of them being dependent on the other for

their existence. Yet, they say that the antecedent of the sprout is the seed and that of the seed is sprout. This cannot be justified.

The point is further dealt with in the following kārikās:

15

hetor ādiḥ phalam yeṣām ādir hetuḥ phalasya ca I tathā janma bhavet teṣām putrāj janma pitur yathā I

'To those who maintain that the antecedent of a cause is its effect and the antecedent of an effect is its cause, the production of a thing would be just after the manner of the birth of a father from the son.'

The point is that if it is held that the antecedent of a cause is its effect and vice-versa, then it would follow from it that as a cause produces its effect, so an effect, too, produces its cause; and if one accepts it one would also accept that a son begets his father. But it is absurd.

Cf. Nāgārjuna in his ViV, 50:

pitrā yady utpādynh putro yadi tena caiva putreņa | utpādyah sa yadi pitā vada tatrotpādayati kah kam ||

Here in the second half yadi, though supported by the Tibetan text, seems to be redundant.

See NS, II. 1. 41, IV. 1. 39; BA, IX. 114;

pitā cen na vinā putrāt kutah putrasya sambhavah | putrābhāve pitā nāsti tathāsattvam tayor dvayoh ||

As regards the relationship between hetu 'cause' and phala 'effect' see MK, XX, specially XX. 20:

ekatve phalahetvoh syād aikyam janakajanyayoh | pṛthaktve phalahetoh syāt tulyo hetur ahetunā || MV writes here: na cānayor ekatvam pitāputrayoś cakṣuś-cakṣurvijñānayor bījānkurayoś ca aikyaprasangāt.

The next kārikā says that there must be an order (krama) of a cause and its effect as to whether the cause or the effect precedes, otherwise there cannot be any relationship between them, and consequently nothing can be produced:

16

sambhave hetuphalayor eşitavyah kramas tvayā l yugapat sambhave yasmād asambandho visānavat l

'As regards production (sambhava, i.e., jāti) you must determine an order of the cause and the effect; for, if they are simultaneous they cannot be related (to each other), as the horns (of an animal).'

This argument is found in Buddhist works as shown below. As regards the production of an effect by its cause only three orders are possible, and not more. For, it may be said that first there is the cause and then the effect (pūrva-krama 'prior order'); or it may may be said that first there is the effect and then the cause (apara-krama 'posterior order'); or, again, it may be said that the cause and the effect are simultaneous (sahakrama 'the order of simultaneity'). But it is clearly shown that none of them can be justified. Says Nāgārjuna, MK, XI. 2:

tasmān nātropapadyante pūrvāparasahakramāļ | 1

<sup>1</sup> Candrakîrtti introduces it (MV) saying: ata eva saṃsārābhāvāj jarāmaraṇādīnāṃ pūrvāparasahakramā api na santītyāha.

The following may be quoted here from MK, XI. 3-5:

pūrvam jātir yadi bhavej jarāmaraņam uttaram |

nirjarāmaraņā jātir bhavej jāyeta cāmṛtaḥ ||

paścāj jātir yadi bhavej jarāmaraṇam āditaḥ |

ahetukam ajātasya syāj jarāmaraṇam katham ||

na jarāmaraṇenaiva jātis ca saha yujyate |

mriyeta jāyamānas ca syāc cāhetukatobhayoh ||

Op. cit. XI. 6:

yatra na prabhavantyete pūrvāparasahakramāḥ |

For details the reader is referred to the whole of the chapters XI and XII.

In the kārikā under discussion Gaudapāda referring to the *krama* of cause and effect refutes their simultaneity saying exactly what is said by Nāgārjuna (MK, XX.7) and his commentator Candrakīrtti:

phalam sahaiva sāmagryā yadi prādurbhavet punaḥ | ekakālau prasajyete janako yaś ca jāyate ||

'Should an effect come into existence just with its cause in its entirety then that which produces and that which is produced become simultaneous.'

Here Candrakīrtti adds: na caikakālayoḥ savyetaragoviṣāṇayor janyajanakatvaṃ dṛṣṭaṃ vāmadakṣiṇakarayoś caraṇayor vā. 'But it is not seen that between two simultaneous things there is any such relation as between the producer (janaka) and the produced (janya), just like between the right and left hands or feet.' <sup>2</sup>

This order of cause and effect has again been referred to later on (IV. 19) by the word *kramakopa* 'incompatibility of order.' <sup>3</sup>

- <sup>2</sup> Sometimes the female breasts are cited as example in such cases.
- <sup>3</sup> See Candrakīrtti (MV, XI. 7-8): tatra yadi pūrvam kāraņam paścāt kāryam syād akāryakam kāraņam nirhetukam syāt. atha pūrvam kāryam paścāt kāraņam evam api kāraņāt pūrvam kāryam nirhetukam eva syāt. atha yugapat kāryakāraņe syātām evam ubhayam apy a[hetu]kam syāt.

Now, according to these three orders (krama) of cause and effect there may be three propositions respectively, viz., (i) the cause produces its effect, (ii) the effect produces its cause; and (iii) the cause and its effect produce each other. Of these three propositions the second is taken up in the following kārikā:

17

phalād utpadyamānah san na te hetuh prasidhyati I aprasiddhah katham hetuh phalam utpādayisyati II<sup>2</sup>

'Your cause coming into being from the effect cannot come into existence; how will, therefore, the cause that has not come into existence produce the effect?'

The argument of our author seems to have been based on what  $N \bar{a} g \bar{a} r j u n a$  has said (MK, X. 10):

yo 'pekṣya sidhyate bhāvas tam evāpekṣya sidhyati | 'yadi yo 'pekṣitavyaḥ sa sidhyatāṃ kam apekṣya kaḥ ||

- <sup>1</sup> See here Nāgārjuna with Candrakīrtti, MK, XX. 5-7, and specially the following line (MV, p. 395, ll. 5-6): yady evam phalasya hetor utpattau doṣa evam sati sahotpannaiva sāmagrī phalasya janikāstu tad yathā pradīpaprabhāyāḥ.
- <sup>2</sup> It appears that a kārikā dealing with the first proposition is now lost between kārikās 16 and 17. For, as the second and third propositions are discussed (IV. 17, 18), one may naturally expect to have the discussion also of the first proposition, but it is not to be found. Can we think that the author himself has omitted it?

Candrakīrtti explains it thus (MV, p. 208):

tatra yadi yo 'gnyākhyo bhāvo yam indhanākhyam bhāvam apekṣya sidhyati, indhanākhyaś ca bhāvo yo 'gninātmasiddhyartham apekṣitavyaḥ, sa yadi tam evāgnyākhyaṃ padārtham apekṣya sidhyati, kathyatām idānīṃ sidhyatāṃ kam apekṣya ka iti. yadā cāgnyabhāve satīndhanasya siddhir cena nāsti tadākāraṇasyendhanasyābhāvāt kutas taddhetuko 'gniḥ prasetsyati.

It says that if the fire is effected having regard to its fuel and the fuel is effected having regard to the fire, neither of them can be effected. See also the next kārikā (MK, X. 11):

yo 'pekṣya sidhyate bhāvaḥ so 'siddho 'pekṣate katham | athāpy apekṣate siddhas tv apekṣāsya na yujyate ||

Mark here the use of the root √sidh with or without the prefix pra- by Gauḍapāda, Nāgārjuna and Candrakīrtti.

This point is further discussed in the following kārikā:

18

yadi hetoḥ phalāt siddhiḥ phalasiddhiś ca hetutaḥ l katarat pūrvam utpannaṃ yasya siddhir apekṣayā l

'If the coming into being of the cause is from the effect and that of the effect is from the cause, which (of the two) has first come into being,—the coming into being of which is dependent?'

Read here the following quoted from N āgārjuna's MK, X.8:

yadindhanam apekṣyāgnir apekṣyāgnim yadindhanam | katarat pūrvaniṣpannam yadapekṣyāgnir indhanam ||

MV (p. 207) runs here as follows:

asyendhanasyāyam agnir dāhakaḥ kartety evam yadīndhanam apekṣyāgnir vyavasthāpyate, asyāgner idam indhanam karmetyevam agnim apekṣya yadīndhanam, tat katarad anayoḥ pūrvaniṣpannam. kim indhanam yad apekṣyāgniḥ syāt, utāgnir yam apekṣyendhanam syāt.

Mark the wording of c in both the kārikās quoted above.1

<sup>1</sup> See Poussin: JRAS, 1913, p. 139

The author proceeds to show very clearly in the next kārikā as to how the Buddhas have explained the theory of ajāti 'non-origination':

19

aśaktir aparijñānam kramakopo 'tha vā punaḥ l evam hi sarvathā buddhair ajātiḥ paridīpitā l

'As there is absence of capability, or complete ignorance, or, again, incompatibility of orders, the Buddhas elucidated (the theory of) absolute non-origination (ajāti)'.

Against the theory of jāti there are given three reasons in the present kārikā, viz., (i) aśakti 'absence of capability', (ii) aparijāna 'complete ignorance', and (iii) kramakopa 'incompatibility of orders'. Of these three the third, i.e., kramakopa has already been discussed in kārikā 16.1 But what do the other two terms aśakti and aparijāāna signify? The answer will be found in Buddhist works. In regard to aśakti it

<sup>1</sup> On this as well as on asakti (asāmarthya) one may be referred to the kṣaṇabhaṅga vāda in the Buddhist section of the SDS.

refers to IV. 3 where two classes of teachers are mentioned, one holding satkāryavāda and the other asatkāryavāda. It has already been shown (IV. 4) that the Buddhists subscribe to neither of these two views. Nāgārjuna says (MK, I. 6), as has once already been quoted:

naivāsato naiva satah pratyayo 'rthasya yujyate | asatah pratyayah kasya satas ca pratyayena kim ||

It says that one cannot be a cause of either an existent or a non-existent thing, for, how is it that there is a cause of a thing which is not in existence? And what is the use of a cause of that which is already existent?

The opponent may say here: Well, when we speak of the cause of a non-existent thing we thereby mean to say that the cause is of a *future* thing. Candrakīrtti replies (MV. on MK, I. 6) to it by quoting the following half of a verse in his MA (VI. 58) which is now available only in its Tibetan version edited by Poussin in BB (IX):

bhavişyatā ced vyavahāra istah śaktim vinā nāsti hi bhāvitāsya | 2

It means that if you want to say that the cause is of a future thing, then owing to the want of energy that thing cannot come into being.

#### <sup>2</sup> In Tibetan

gal. te. hbyun. bar. hgyur. bas. besñad. hdod. na l nus. pa. med. par. hdi.yi. hbyun. hgyur. med l

The other half of the verse in Tibetan runs:

phan. tshun. don. la. brten. paḥi. grub. pa. ni | grub. min. ñid. ces. dam. pa. rnams. kyis. gsuṅs f

It may be translated into Sanskrit as follows:

parasparārthāśrayiņī ca siddhiḥ | siddhir bhaven neti hi sadbhir uktam|| The point here is this that in the coming into being of anything there must be some śakti 'energy', otherwise everything is possible from everything, or nothing is possible from anything. But the existence of such a śakti cannot be established. For, as discussed by Candrakīrtti in his MA, VI. 57, it cannot be said that the śakti belongs to a thing 'that has come into being (jāta), or to one that has not yet come into being (ajāta). §

I think this aśakii is referred to here by Gaudapāda in his present kārikā.

Now aparijāāna in the kārikā seems to me to be nothing but pūrvāparāparijāāna 'absolute ignorance of the first and last (points)' in kārikā IV.21. And this pūrvāparāparijāāna is in reality pūrvāparakoṭi-aparijāāna, that is, absolute ignorance of the first and last points, i.e., the beginning and the end of the world as well as anything in it. To this theme a whole chapter (XI) is devoted in the MK, owing to which it is called pūrvāparakoṭi-parākṣā 'the Examination of the First and the Last Points.' Let here be quoted the first kārikā of it (XI. 1):

pūrvā prajīfāyate koļir nety uvāca mahāmunih | saṃsāro 'navarāgro hi nāsyādir nāpi paścimaṃ ||

'The great sage said that the first point (of the world) is not known, for it is without the first and last points owing to the fact that it has neither the beginning nor the end.'

Candrakīrtti comments: koṭir bhāgo deśa iti paryāyāḥ. pūrvā koṭiḥ pūrvo deśa ity arthaḥ. yadi hi saṃsāro nāma kaścit

The Sanskrit rendering in prose may be; jāte šaktir na sambhavati, ajātasvabhāve' pi šaktir nāsti.

skyes. la. nus. pa. srid. pa. yod. ma. yin | ma. skyes. ño. bo. laḥañ nus. yod. min. ni |

syāt niyatam tasya pūrvam api syāt paścimam api ghaṭādīnām iva. uktam ca bhagavatā anavarāgro hi bhikṣavo jātijarāmaraṇasaṃsāra iti.<sup>4</sup> tasmān nasti saṃsāraḥ pūrvāparakoṭyanupalambhād alātacakravad iti sthitam.

It is to be noted here that pūrvāparakoṭyaparijāāna (or °kotyanupalambha) is not only of the world, but also of everything. So says Nāgārjuna (MK. XI. 8):

pūrvā na vidyate koṭiḥ saṃsārasya na kevalaṃ | sarvesām api bhāvānām pūrvā koṭir na vidyate||

'It is not only of the world, but also of every thing that there is no existence of the first point.'

Nāgārjuna proceeds to say (MK, XI. 2):

naivāgram nāvaram yasya tasya madhyam kuto bhavet |

'How is it that that which has no beginning nor the end should have the middle?'

And the very thing is said also by our author (II, 6, IV. 31):

ādāv ante ca yan nāsti vartamāne 'pi tat tathā | 5

'That which is not in the beginning, nor in the end, is so also in the present.'

See IV, 31

- <sup>4</sup> See DA, p. 197, l. 5; SN, Vol. II, pp. 178, 193, Vol. III, pp. 149, 151, MP, 11. 3, 2 (pp. 50-51); KV, I. 1, 159.
  - 5 adavante ca yan nasti madhye 'pi tat tatha.

Nayopadesa, 14.

jassa n'atthi purā pacchā majjham tassa kuo siyā.

AS, 4.4.1.3.

It is not also in the middle, as says \$ (tan madhye 'pi nāstīti).

It has been shown before that causation (hetuphalabhāva) in cases of origination is not possible. But one may meet the objection offering the example of seed and sprout (bija and ankura). For it is evident that a sprout comes into being from a seed and a seed from a sprout. There is an endless series of it yet the fact cannot be denied. Thus by dint of the example causation is established. The author, however, says that the example does not establish any causation, though it may appear to do so, according to you. Therefore until it is established to the satisfaction of both the parties this example cannot be cited. Thus he says:

### 20

bījānkurākhyo dṛṣṭāntaḥ sadā sādhyasamo hi naḥ l na ca sādhyasamo hetuḥ siddhau sādhyasya yujyate l

'To us the illustration of a seed and its sprout is always like a thing that is yet to be proved (sādhyasama). And a reason (hetu) which is like one that is yet to be proved (sādhyasama) cannot be used for establishing a thing in question'.

Nāgārjuna has discussed (MK, X) the point thoroughly taking the example of fire and fuel (agni-indhana) and has arrived at the conclusion that there cannot be any causation (hetuphalabhāva) of anything. Let us cite here only the following few lines from this work:

yad indhanam sa ced agnir ekatvam kartrkarmanoh | anyaś ced indhanād agnir indhanād apy ite bhavet ||

nityapradīpta eva syād apradīpanahetukaḥ | punar ārambhavaiyarthyam evaṃ cākə makaḥ sati|| X. 1-2.

agnīndhanābhyām vyākhyāta ātmopādānayoḥ kramaḥ | sarvo niravaśeṣeṇa sārdham ghaṭapaṭādibhiḥ || X. 15.

C a n d r a k ī r t t i says on CS, IX.8: tasmād evam hetuphalabhāvavyavasthābhāvād dvayam api (hetu and phala) svarūpeņa na sidhyati.¹

sādhyasama hetu is one of the fallacies of a reason (hetvā-bhāsa). It is an assertion identical with the point to be proved, petitio principii. See NS, I. 2. 4, 8; V. 1. 4.

The word hetu has been used here in the kārika in the sense of drstānta, as says S.

<sup>1</sup> The Sanskrit text has not yet been discovered hence it is reconstructed (see my edition) from the Tibetan version which runs: deḥi. phyir. de. ltar. na. rgyu. dan. ḥbras. bu. dnos. po. rnam. par. gnas. pa. med. paḥi. phyir. gñi. ga. ran. gi. no. bos. grub. pas. yod. pa. ma. yin. no ∥ See also the kārikā and MA, p. 150.

The opponent says referring to kārika IV. 19:

21

pūrvāparāparijñānam ajāteḥ paridīpakam I jāyamānād dhi vai dharmāt kathaṃ pūrvaṃ na gṛhyate II

'The absolute ignorance of the first and the last (points of a thing) is elucidator of non-origination; but how is it that the first (point) is not known (of a thing) which actually comes into being?

The word pūrvāparāparijñāna has already (IV. 19) been explained.

To the question raised above the author gives his reply in the following kārikā actually in the words of Nāgārjuna and his followers: 22

svato vā parato vāpi na kiñcid vastu jāyate I sad asat sadasad vāpi na kiñcid vastu jāyate II

'Nothing is produced either from itself or from other than itself, nor is anything produced which is existent, non-existent, or both existent and non-existent '1

The author wants to say here that should there be a thing that originates  $(j\bar{a}yate)$  one may say that it has its first point  $(p\bar{u}rva\ koti)$ , i.e., the state of its becoming or being produced, but in reality there is nothing of the kind. For the first half of the kārikā see  $N\bar{a}g\bar{a}rjuna$ :

na svato jāyate bhāvaḥ parato naiva jāyate  $\mid$  na svataḥ parataś caiva jāyate jāyate kutaḥ  $\mid$  2

MK, XXI. 13, see also XXIII. 20.

'A thing comes into being neither from itself, nor from another, nor from both, itself and another; and that being the case, how can it come into being at all?'

na svato nāpi parato na dvābhyām nāpyahetutaḥ | utpannā jātu vidyante bhāvāḥ kvacana kecana|

Op. cit, I. 1.

'There are nowhere and never such things as are produced either from themselves or from others, or from both, or from one that is no cause at all.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Here the point 'not existent-and-non-existent (na sad-asad)' may also be added. See IV. 83.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Quoted in BAP, p. 339, and SS. p. 18.

For the second half of the kārikā the reader is referred to the following line of  $N \bar{a} g \bar{a} r j u n a$  (MK, I.7):

na san nāsan na sadasan dharmo nirvartate yadā | katham nirvartako hetur evam sati hi yujyate ||\*

'When nothing existent, non-existent, or both existent and non-existent, comes into being, how is it reasonable to say that a cause brings about a thing?'

### 3 See:

na san nāsan na sadasan na cāpyanubhayātmakam 1 catuṣkoṭivinimuktaṃ tattvaṃ mādhyamikā viduḥ||

This couplet is attributed to Sarahapāda in SS, p. 15 and found in a book Jāānasārasamuccaya, 28. The original Sanskrit of this work is not yet found, but there is a Tibetan version (Tanjur, Mdo, Tsh; Cordir. III, p. 29). Here the authorship of the original book is attributed to Āryadeva. In Tibetan it is called Ye. śes. sāin. po. kun. las. btus. pa. The present kārikā is quoted in BAP, p. 359, and many other books both Buddhist and non-Buddhist. In this connection see IV. 83-84, and atas tattvam sadasadubhayānubhayātmakacatuṣkoṭivinirmuktam śūnyam eva in SDS (Buddhism section). Bib. Ind., 1858, p. 14.

The next kārikā is a reply to those who maintain the theory of origination (jātivāda) on the ground of the rule of cause and effect (hetuphalavyavasthā) saying that both of them are without a beginning and as such cannot come into existence:

23

hetur na jāyate 'nādiḥ phalam vāpi svabhāvataḥ l ādir na vidyate yasya tasya jātir na vidyate ll'

1 All the MSS, utilized for the Anandasram editions as well as those (not less than sixteen) collected from different provinces and examined by myself including different extant editions read 'nādeḥ for nādiḥ in a and hy ādir for jātir in d. With these original readings the kārikā hardly gives any appreciable sense. What does the second half with that reading (ādir na vidyate yasya tasya hy ādir na vidyate) mean? With the reading jātir for hyādir suggested by me the sense is quite clear and it is in one wey supported by the explanation given by the commentator, Ś, who has twisted the text with the reading hy ādiḥ saying:

'A cause as well as an effect having no beginning does not naturally come into being, for that which has no beginning has no origination.'

Compare BC, IX. 123:

hetor ādir na ced asti phalasyādiḥ kuto bhavet |

'Should there be no beginning of a cause how could an effect have a beginning?'

yasmād ādiḥ kāraṇam na vidyate yasya loke tasya ādiḥ pūrvoktā jātir na vidyate. The reason for suggesting 'nādiḥ for 'nādeḥ is this that by doing so the meaning becomes quite clear and only as such is supported by the second half of the kārikā.

# 24

Now, a few words are necessary to introduce the words prajñapti and samkleśa in the next kārikā. We say 'It is a tree', and by saying so we affirm the existence of the tree. We know thereby that in reality there is a thing which is called 'tree.' But some thinkers including a class of Buddhists would utterly deny the existence of such a thing. According to them there is nothing that can be called a tree. That which is known to us as a tree is nothing but a mere understanding (samkhyā), a designation (samjñā); it is only making known to others (prajnapti), that is, the practical denomination. simply a common use (vyavahāra), it is merely a name (nāman) and nothing else. And it is only on account of its having the branches, the leaves etc., that it comes under the generally understood term of 'tree.' Similarly there is nothing in fact like a branch, a leaf, and so on, it being merely a current term, an enumeration, a designation, an expression or a distinctive mark of discourse 1

1 DS, § 1308 (see Buddhist Psychology, pp. 340-341): katame dhammā paññatti. yā tesam tesam dhammānam sankhā samaññā paññatti voharo nāmam nāmakammam nāmadheyam nirutti vyañjanam abhilāpo. Compare here the theory against that of what is known as Avayavivāda, BA with BAP, IX. 79 seq. and ASP, p. 97. There is also a small separate treatise entitled Avayavi-

The true literal significance of the word prajñapti, 'practical denomination', is 'making known' (bhāvasādhana); or 'that by which a thing is made known' (karaṇasādhana), i.e., name or term. Or, again, it may mean what is made known (karmasādhana).<sup>2</sup> In the present case the word is used in either of the first two senses.

On the use of the word prajňapti in Buddhist works Kumārila's observation (TV, I. 3. 12, p. 234) is interesting: śākyādigrantheṣu punar yadapi kiñcit sādhuśabdābhiprāyeṇāvinaṣṭabuddhyā prayuktaṃ tatrāpi prajňapti-vijňapti-paśyatātiṣṭhatādiprāyaprayogāt kiñcid evāviplutaṃ labhyate. kim uta yāni prasiddhāpabhraṣṭadeśabhāṣābhyo 'py apabhraṣṭatarāṇ; bhikkhave ityevamādīni. See here its Ṭikā Nyāyasudhā.

As regards saṃkleśa it has also a special sense in Buddhist works. It is well-known in Buddhist literature along with its opposite term vyavadāna. They mean 'impurity and purification' respectively. See BA with BAP, IX. 28. By impurity the mind (citta) becomes impure and by purification it becomes pure. This saṃkleśa is threefold: (1) kleśa 'passion' (i.e., rāga, dveṣa and moha), that can be avoided by right view (darśana) and meditation (bhāvanā); (2) karman 'act,' bad (akuśala), and good-impure (kuśalāsrava); and (3) janman 'birth' (or phala 'fruit', recompense that projects the existence). See Vis, pp. 214 ff. Let the following be quoted here from Tk, p. 28:

tatra kleśakarmajanmātmakas trividhaḥ saṃkleśaḥ.

nirāharaṇa by Pandita Aśoka in the Six Buddhist Nyāya Tracts, Bib. Ind., pp. 78 ff. The well-known 'Chariot Simile' in the Milindapañha, pp. 27 ff. (II. 1. 1) may also be referred to here. The Avayavivāda is established among others in the following works of Brahmanic authority: NS, II. 1.33 ff., PB with NK on VSt., pp. 41 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> ASh, § 107 paññatti pana paññāpiyattā (Skt. prajñāpyatvāt) pañāatti. paññāpanato (Skt. prajñāpanataḥ) vā paññattīti ca duvidhā hoti. Thus the first is karmasādhana and the second bhāvasādhana,

The following occurs in MSBT, pp. 34-35:

[kleśa eva śaṃkleśa iti kleśa] saṃkleśaḥ. evaṃ karma-[saṃkleśo] janmasaṃkleśaḥ. kleśo hi pravartamānaḥ svaparātmanor vyābādhakatvāt saṃkleśaḥ. yathoktaṃ sūtre³ rakto hi rāgaparīta ātmavyābādhāyāpi cetayate paravyābādhāyāpi cetayata ubhayavyābādhāyāpi cetayate. evaṃ dveṣamohayor api jīātavyam iti. karma janma ca saṃkleśapravartanād api samkleśah.

3 This is, as pointed out by S. Yamaguchi, from AN, III. 54.

Now, the opponent having his hold on the meaning of the word prajñapti as well as saṃkleśa well-known among, and accepted by, Vijñānavādins, who maintain that there is, in fact, only vijñāna and the external word has no reality at all, proceeds to refute their views, the purpose thereof being that if the existence of external things is once established one will have to accept their jāti, too.

The kārikā runs thus:

prajñapteh sanimittatvam anyathā dvayanāśatah I saṃkleśasyopalabdheś ca paratantrāstitā matā II

'The practical denomination (prajñapti) has its (objective) cause (nimitta), for otherwise there is the disappearance of the two; (owing to this fact) as well as the experience of

<sup>1</sup> For nimitta see IV. 25, 27, 75, 77, 78; LA, pp. 225-226: tatra nimittam punar mahāmate jac cakṣurvijāānasyābhāsām āgacchati rūpasamjāakam, evam śrotraghrāṇajihvākāyamanovijāānānām śabdagandharasaspraṣṭavyadharmasamjāakam, etam nimittam iti vadāmi; p. 228: tatra mahāmate nimittam yat saṃsthānākṛtiviśeṣākārarūpādilakṣaṇam dṛśyate tan nimittam.

impurities (saṃkleśa-upalabdhi) (their) existence is regarded as dependent (paratantra).2'

It says that it must be admitted that prañapti must have its nimitta; i.e., the objective cause; for otherwise there will be no notion of the (dvaya)<sup>3</sup>, i.e., grāhya and grāhaka 'the percipient and the perceptible,' in other words, the subject and the object,—a fact that cannot be denied. And, again, owing to saṃkleśa-upalabdhi it is also to be admitted that there must be some things (for example, as the Buddhists would say, śkandhas, dhātus, āyatanas) that are the causes of these saṃkleśas. Thus the things to which the prajñapti and the saṃkleśa-upalabdhi owe their existence are external and have their origination (jāti).

The argument advanced here has two parts: first, owing to the existence of prajñapti the existence of its cause, too, is to be admitted; and second, as there is the experience of samkleśas there must be also their cause. Both the parts of the argument are taken from Buddhist works. As regards the first let us quote here a few lines from the LA, p. 104:

punar aparam mahāmatir āha. nanu bhagavann abhilāpasadbhāvāt santi sarvabhāvāh. yadi punar bhagavan bhāvā na syur abhilāpo na pravartate, pravartate ca. tasmād abhilāpasadbhāvād bhagavan santi sarvabhāvāh. bhagavān āha. asatām api mahāmate bhāvānām abhilāpah kriyate yad uta śaśaviṣāṇakūrmaromabandhyāputrādīnām loke dṛṣṭo⁴ 'bhilāpah, te ca mahāmate na bhāvā nābhāvā abhilapyante ca. tad yad avocas tvam mahāmate abhilāpasadbhāvāt santi sarvabhāvā iti sa hi vādaḥ prahīṇaḥ.

For the word paratantra see IV. 24, 73, 74.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> For dvaya see II. 14; III. 29, 30; IV. 24, 61, 72, 75, 79, 87.

<sup>4</sup> The printed text reads 'drsto which is evidently wrong.

"Mahāmatisays again: 'Is it not, O Blessed One, that all beings exist, for they all have their expressions (abhilāpa). If, O Blessed One, there exist no beings there cannot be their expressions. Therefore, all beings exist on account of their expressions.' Says the Blessed One: 'There are, O Mahāmati, expressions also for those which are non-existent, for example, the horn of a hare, the hair of a tortoise, the son of a 'barren woman, and so on. These are O Mahāmati, neither beings, nor non-beings, yet they are expressed. Therefore, O Mahāmati, the theory, as you say, that owing to expressions all beings exist, is lost.'" 5

The following couplet from the same work (LA. p. 105) supplies the gist of the above :

ākāśaṃ śaśaśṇṅgaṃ ca bandhyāyāḥ putra eva ca | asanto hy abhilapyante tathā bhāveṣu kalpanā ||

It is quoted in MV, p. 528, where occurs the following:

tatrāpi bhāvakalpanāpratiṣedhamātram nābhāvakalpanā bhāvatvāsiddher eveti vijūeyam. bandhyāputra iti śabdamātram evaitat. nāsyārtha upalabhyate yasyārthasya bhāvatvam abhāvatvam vā syād iti kuto 'nupalabhyamānasvabhāvasya bhāvābhāvakalpanā yokṣyate.

The following is taken also from LA, p. 319 (X. 430):

asatsu sarvadharmeşu prajūaptiḥ kriyate mayā | abhilāpo vyavahāraś ca bālānāṃ tattvavarjitaḥ ||

It is to be noted that abhilāpa and prajāapti are synonymous with each other. See DSa, § 1308, quoted above, p. 129.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> See III. 37: sarvābhilāpavigatah.

Now, as regards the second part we should like to quote a few lines also from a Buddhist work. Candrakīrtti introduces the sixth chapter of the MK thus (MV, p. 137):

atrāha. vidyata eva skandhā[yatana]dhātavaḥ. kutaḥ. tadāśrayasaṃkleśopalabdheḥ. iha yan nāsti na tadā[śraya]saṃkleśopalabdhir asti bandhyāduhitur iva bandhyāsūnoḥ. santi ca rāgādayaḥ kleśāḥ saṃkleśanibandhanaṃ.

'Here (the opponent) says: "Verily there are the skandhas, ayatanas, and dhātus. Why? Because there is experience of saṃkleśas arising from them; and because, on the other hand, there is no experience of saṃkleśas arising from that which has no existence, as of a barren woman's daughter from a barren woman's son." And there are attachment and other passions, the cause of saṃkleśa.

With regard to prajñapti the following may also be quoted in this connexion:

prajñaptir nāmamātreyam lakṣmaṇena na vidyate | LA, X. 23 (p. 267).

prajñaptimātram tribhavam nāsti vastu svabhāvatah | prajñaptim vastubhāvena kalpayişyanti tārkikāḥ||

Op. cit, X. 86 (p. 275).

Now the author proceeds to give his reply to the above prima facie case:

- Five: rūpa, vedanā, samjñā, samskāra, and vijñāna.
- 7 Twelve: six organs of sense and their objects, viz., six internal: eye, ear, nose, tongue, body, and mind; and six external: form, sound, odour, taste, contact and ideas.
- <sup>8</sup> Eighteen: six organs of sense, their six objects, and six kinds of consciousness arising from them.
  - 9 Calcutta ed. has prajñaptināmamātredam.

25

prajñapteḥ sanimittatvam iṣyate yuktidarśanāt l nimittasyānimittatvam iṣyate bhūtadarśanāt l

'Seeing the reason (advanced above) one wants (to say) that the *prajñapti* has its *nimitta*; but seeing the reality (we) want (to say) that the *nimitta* is no *nimitta* at all.'

The opponent says, as we have seen, prajūapti must have its objective cause, but the argument drawn from the real nature of things points to the conclusion that what is called by him a nimitta (cause) is in reality no nimitta at all. The reason hereof is advanced in the following kārikā:

26

cittam na samspṛśatyartham nārthābhāsam tathaiva ca l abhūto hi yataś cārtho nārthābhāsas tataḥ pṛthak l

'The mind does not touch (i.e. relate itself to) an object, nor does its appearance (arthābhāsa), for the object is unreal and its appearance is not different from it.'

The mind has no contact with its object owing to the absence of the object itself. For in this theory (of the Vijnānavādins) there is nothing but the mind (citta). Now it goes without saying that the mind having no contact with its object has in fact no contact also with its appearance (arthābhāsa). The second half of the kārikā offers the reason hereof. It means that the object is unreal and it being so its appearance which depends on it is also unreal; and thus both of them being unreal the latter is in this respect not different from the former. This being the case the mind can in no way be related either to its object or its appearance. Therefore it cannot be said,

as done in the first half of the preceding kārikā, that prajāapti has its nimitta. One must remember here that according to the Vijāānavādins there is no reality of external things. Let us read here the following from the MVBT, p. 10:

[°athavā cittacaitasikā rūpato dravyataś ca santīti yeṣāṃ dṛṣṭis teṣāṃ pratiṣedhārtham uktam] abhūtaparikalpo['stīti]. [tasmād] asti dravyataḥ. nāsti rūpaṃ tadvyatiriktaṃ. [nāsti] dravyata iti. kiṃ kāraṇaṃ. yasmād dvayaṃ tatra na vidyate. na hy abhūtaparikalpaḥ kasyacid grāhako nāpi kenacid gṛhyate. kiṃ tarhi. grāhyagrāhakatva [rahitaṃ vastumātraṃ. tathā hi vijñānād bahir na rūpādi gṛhyate svapnādivat vijñānaṃ hi rūpādyā]bhāsam utpadyate. tasmān nirabalambanam eva svapnādāv ivānyatrāpi svabījaparipākād arthābhāsaṃ vijñānam utpadyata ity eva jñeyaṃ, grāhyā[bhāve grāhako na bhavatīti grāhyābhāve grāhakābhāvo na yujyate. ato rūpam abhūtaparikalpān na pṛthagbhūtaṃ].

The opponent may argue here: Well, according to you there are no external things. But you cannot deny that there is an appearance of things round us. It may be a false one in your opinion. Yet, it must have some cause. What is it? It is nothing but the contact of the mind with an object. Thus even for a false notion or impression (viparyāsa) the existence of an object must be postulated.

The author rejoins that it is quite true that even false impressions are possible only when there is a contact of the mind with an object, but when that contact itself is never and in no way possible there is no possibility also of them. How to explain, then, the false impressions? He would reply that it is the nature of the mind itself that even in the absence of any object it transforms into various objects under the influence of vāsanās. For it is the seed of all (sarvabīja) having possessed the power of producing everything. Says Sthiramati (Tk, p. 36, l. 7 on kārikā 17: sarvabījaṃ hi vijāānam):

tatra sarvadharmotpādanaśaktyanugamāt sarvabījam.

LA, X. 49 (p. 271):

cittam vicitram bījākhyam khyāyate cittagocaram | khyātau kalpenti utpattim bālāh kalpadvaye ratāh||

Proceeds our author:

27

nimittam na sadā cittam samspṛśaty adhvasu triṣu l animitto viparyāsaḥ katham tasya bhaviṣyati l

'Never in the three divisions of time (i.e., the past, the present, and the future) the mind touches any cause (object), how is it then that a false impression would arise without any cause thereof?'

See IV. 41, 77, 78; LA, X. 123:

viparyāsasya vastutvād yad vad evopalabhyate | niḥsvabhāvaṃ bhavet tad dhi sarvathāpi na vidyate||

That in the above kārikās (25-27) the doctrine of the Vijnānavādins is supported by our author is clearly admitted by S in the following words introducing the next kārikā (28):

prajñapteḥ sanimittatvam ityādy etadantam vijñānavādino bauddhasya vacanam bāhyārthavādipakṣapratiṣedhaparam ācāryeṇānumoditam.

Now the Ācārya draws his conclusion from what is said above in this connexion:

28

tasmān na jāyate cittam cittadṛśyam na jāyate I tasya paśyanti ye jātim khe vai paśyanti te padam I 1201B—18 'Hence neither the mind (citta), nor that which is cognizable by it (cittadṛśya) is originated. Those who see its (i.e., of the citta and cittadṛśya) origination see the (foot-) mark (of birds) in the sky.'

'Hence (tasmāt)' refers to the reason advanced above in 26 and 27: because there is no contact of the mind with any object.

The belief in the origination of things is as absurd as the seeing of foot-marks of birds flying in the sky.

For this simile compare DP, 93 (=TG, 92):

ākāse va sakuntānam padam tassa durannayam

This simile in our kārikā can be better explained by what Buddhaghoşa has said in his DPA on the above line:

padam tassa durannayan'ti yathā ākāse gacchantānam sakuntānam imassim thāne pādehi akkamitvā gatā idam thānam udarena pahāritvā gatā idam sīsena idam pakkhehīti na sakkā nātum evam eva

It says with reference to an Arhat that as in the case of birds flying in the sky it cannot be ascertained that they have gone away stepping on this spot with the legs and striking this spot with the wings, just so...

A similar verse is quoted by S in IV. 91. It runs:

śakunānām ivākāśe gatir naivopalabhyate | Cf. DP, 92:

ākāśe va sakuntānam gati tesam durannayā

The following is quoted by S in his commentary on MU, III. 2. 6:

śakunīnāmivākāśe jale vāricarasya ca | padam yathā na dṛṣyeta tathā jñānavatām gatiḥ ||

On such texts is based the following observation of S in his commentary on the BU, IV. 4. 6 (p. 637):

ta utsahante khe' pi śākunam padam drastum.

For further details see IV. 91.

As regards the main proposition here the following lines from  $\bar{A}$  ryaratnacūḍaparipicchā (quoted in BAP, IX. 18, p. 392; MV, p. 62; SS, p. 235) deserve to be cited:

sa cittam parigaveṣamāṇo nādhyātmam cittam samanupaśyati na bahirdhā cittam samanuśyati.° sa cittamasamanupaśyan cittadhārām paryeṣate kutaś cittasyotpattir iti. tasyevam bhavati. ālambane sati cittam utpadyate tat kim anyad ālambanam anyac cittam, tadā dvicittatā bhaviṣyati, atha yadevālambanam tad eva cittam tat katham cittena cittam samanupaśyati na ca cittam cittam samanupaśyati tad yathāpi nāma tayaivāsidhārayā saivāsidhārā na śakyate chettum, na tenaivāngulyagram tad evāngulyagram śākyate spraṣṭum, evam eva na tenaiva cittena tad eva cittam śakyam draṣṭum.°

And the following is from KP, 149 (§102)1:

cittam hi kāśyapa parigaveṣyamāṇam na labhyate. yan na labhyate tan nopalabhyate. tan nātītām. nānāgatam, na pratyutpannam. yan nātītam nānāgatam na pratyutpannam tat tryadhvasamatikrāntam. yat tryadhvasamatikrāntam tan naivāsti naiva nāsti. yan naivāsti na nāsti tad ajātam. yad ajātam tasya nāsti svabhāvah. yasya nāsti svabhāvah tasya nāsty utpādaḥ, yasya nāsty utpādaḥ tasya nāsti nirodhaḥ.° ²

See MV, p. 45 (KP=Ratnakūṭasūtra): \$\$, p. 233; BAP, IX. 106 (p. 338).

<sup>2</sup> On citta see the work, pp. 142-150.

Having shown that the citta does not originate the Ācārya comes to his main thesis, the theory of ajāti 'non-origination.' Says he:

## 29

ajātam jāyate yasmād ajātih prakṛtis tataḥ l prakṛter anyathābhāvo na kathañcid bhaviṣyati ll

'As it is one unborn (ajāta) that is born (jāta), non-birth (ajāti) is its very essence (prakṛti). And there can be in no way any change of essence.'

For a see jāta eva na jāyate, BU, III. 9, 25; and ante ajātasyaiva dharmasya jātim icchanti vādinaḥ, III. 20, IV. 6; and note on IV. 13.

If a man is born it must be said that before his birth he was unborn, and this state of being unborn before the birth is his essence. Now, if it is accepted, and it must be accepted, as his essence, there cannot be his birth which is a change, for essence can in no way change, as essence and change are two contradictory terms. Similarly before a citta is produced it must be considered as unproduced, and that being its essence which can never change it cannot be produced at all. This law holds good wherever there is the question of jāti.

For the wording of the second half of the kārikā which is found also in III. 21 see MK. XV. 8:

prakrter anyathābhāvo nahi jātūpapadvate.

On this point one may be referred to also:

kasya syād anyathābhāvaḥ svabhāvo yadi vidyate || tasyaiva nānyathābhāvo näpy anyasyaiva yujyate | yuvā na jīryate yasmād yasmāj jīrņo na jīryate ||

Op. cit., XIII. 4, 5.

In the next kārikā the author says that an advocate of the theory of jāti cannot account for his two propositions: first, saṃsāra 'continued existence' is without a beginning, but has an end; and the second, liberation is with a beginning, but has no end. He says:

30

anāder antavattvam ca samsārasya na setsyati l anantatā cādimato moksasya na bhavişyati ll

'It would not be established that saṃsāra is without a beginning, but has an end; nor would it be possible that liberation which has a beginning has no end.'

An advocate of the theory of origination has to admit that saṃsāra has its origination; and if it is so, it must have a beginning. And that being so, the tenet that saṃsāra has no beginning cannot be maintained. Similarly according to him liberation also has its origination, and as such it must be with a beginning, and consequently must have an end, and in that case one cannot say that it has no end.

The point discussed in the next few kārikās is this that it is only when there is the existence of saṃsāra that there arises the question as to whether it has or has not a beginning

- khandhānam paṭipāṭī ca dhatu-āyatānāna ca | abbhocchinnam vattamānam saṃsāro ti pavuccati ||
- That samsāra is anādi is admitted on all hands. As for Buddhists see MK, XI. I with its vitti:

pūrvā prajūāyate kotir nety uvāca mahāmunih | samsāro 'navarāgro hi nāsyādir nāpi paścimam || or an end; but in fact it has no existence at all. Says the Ācārya:

31

ādāv ante ca yan nāsti vartamāne pi tat tathā I vitathaih sadršāh santo "vitathā iva laksitāh II"

'That which is not at the beginning, nor at the end, is not also in the present, (i.e., in the middle 2); being like the unreal things still appear as not unreal.'

Compare here what Nāgārjuna says in his MK, XI. 2: naivāgram nāvaram yasya madhyam tasya kuto bhavet.

'How should that which has neither the anterior point, nor the posterior one, have the middle?'

Candrakirtti comments:

agram ity ēdiḥ pūrvam prathamam ucyate. avaram ity avasānam vyavaccheda ucyate. yasya samsārasya ēdir antas ca pratisiddhaḥ tasya madhyam kuto bhaviṣyati. tatas ca samiñāmētrakam eva viparyēsaparavasamēnasēnēm samsēra ēdimadhyēvasānavirahitatvēd ēkāsavad alētacakravad iti bhāvaḥ.

The following may also be quoted here:

yassa n'atthi purā pacchā majjham tassa kuo siyā | ĀS, I. 4. 4. 3. ādāv ante ca yan nāsti madhye'pi ca na tat tathā | Nayopadeśa. 14.

<sup>1</sup> See II. 6.

yad ādāv ante ca nāsti vastu mygetyspikādi tan madhye'pi nārtīti nikiitam loke. S on Il. 6.

Cf. aděv eva hi yan nësti këranësambhavët eva) am | vartamëne pi tan nësti nëtah syët tatra kidjish | YV. III. II. 13.

na yat purastād uta yan na paścān madhye ca tan na vyapadeśamātram | bhūtaṃ prasiddhaṃ ca pareṇa yad yat tad eva tat syād iti me manīṣā ||

BP, XI. 28. 21.

That samsāra has neither a beginning nor an end is fully discussed in MK with MV, XI.

Now, there are two kinds of things, one kind experienced in dream (svapna), and the other in wakefulness (jāgrat); and it has been thoroughly established in Book II (Vaitathya Prakaraṇa) that there is no difference between the states of dream and wakefulness, and so the things experienced in the latter are as false as those in the former. The author here puts forth the same argument in the same language with a view to show that the thing which is as false as that in one's dream cannot come into being in reality, and so the jātivāda cannot stand. He says

32

saprayojanatā teṣām svapne'pi pratipadyate I tasmād ādyantavattvena mithyaiva khalu te smṛtāḥ II

'That the things have some purpose in dream also is known; hence owing to their beginning and end, indeed, they are regarded as false.'

One may object to the falsity of the phenomena of waking experience on the ground that they really serve some purpose; as for instance, water, when it is drunk, quenches one's thirst, while the phenomena in dream are not such. To this the author replies in the above kārikā. His point is this that the phenomena of dream are linked with one another by some purpose no less than those of waking experience. In dream also one drinks water to quench one's thirst. So the

phenomena like those in dream having a beginning and an end have no reality at all; for that which has a beginning and an end cannot be real, as the mirage.

This kārikā is identical with II. 7. See the note on it for a different reading.

It is said that the things seen in the waking state are false, because, as regards nature, they have no difference from those seen in dreams which are evidently false. But why the latter are so the author says in the next few kārikās as in II. 1-10:

33

sarve dharmā mṛṣā svapne kāyasyāntar¹ nidarśanāt l saṃvṛte² 'smin pradeśe vai bhūtānāṃ darśanaṃ kutaḥ #

'All things in dream are false as they are seen within the body; for how can objects be seen in this confined space (of the body)?'

1 For a see II. 1'.

2 II. 1d, 4d

34

na yuktam darsanam gatvā kālasyāniyamād¹ gatau l pratibuddhas ca vai sarvas tasmin dese na vidyate ll²

'(In dream) the seeing (of a thing at a distance) having gone (up to it) is not reasonable; for there is no fixed rule of time for the act of going (there), and no persons being awake exist in the place (where they dream themselves to be).'

Cf. adirghatvāc ca kālasya, II. 2a.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Identical with II. 2c-d.

35

mitrādyaiḥ saha saṃmantrya prabuddho¹ na prapadyate I gṛhītaṃ cāpi yat kiñcit pratibuddho na paśyati II

- 'When awake, he does not find his friends and others with whom he had deliberated, nor does he see all that which he had (then in dream) grasped.'
- <sup>1</sup> With a large number of MSS. I read this for sambuddha in printed editions.

36

svapne cāvastukaḥ kāyaḥ pṛthag anyasya darśanāt l yathā kāyas tathā sarvaṃ cittadṛśyam avastukam l

'In dream the (active) body is unreal, for (quite) a different body is seen (in the place where one dreams); and as the body so all the things which are cognizable by the mind are unreal.'

37

grahaṇāj jāgaritavat taddhetuḥ svapna iṣyate l taddhetutvāc ca tasyaiva saj jāgaritam iṣyate l

'The experience (of dream) being like (that of) wakefulness, it (wakefulness) is considered to be the cause of dream; and that being so it is (also) considered that wakefulness is real only to him (i.e., the dreamer).'

It is a fact that cause and its effect must be of the same nature. Accordingly wakefulness and dream being the cause and the effect respectively must be of the same nature. So if a dream is false wakefulness is also false. And as a dream appears to be real only to the dreamer, so wakefulness, too, is real only to an ordinary unenlightened man.

I think the logical order of the following four kerikes, viz., 28.41 should be as follows: 39, 41, 38 and 40. For the kerikes 39 and 41 with 32-37 form the same subject of discussion, i.e., the equality of the states of dream and wakefulness, while the kerikes 38 and 40 are meant for showing the impossibility of origination directly. The traditional order is shown in the present edition by the figures in parenthesis.

# 38 (39)

asaj jägarite dṛṣṭvā svapne pasyati tanmayah l asat svapne 'pi dṛṣṭvā ca pratibuddho na pasyati l'

'In the waking state one sees an unreal thing and being absorbed in it sees it (also) in a dream. And in a dream, too, one sees an unreal thing, but does not see it when one awakes.'

To see the unreal is common to both the states, dream and wakefulness; the only difference between them is, however as stated in the kārikā itself.

yathaiva kāmān supinānti seviya pratibuddhasetuh(?) puruşo na patyati [ SR, IX, p, 29,

# 39 (41)

viparyäsäd yathä jägrad acintyän hhūtavat spṛśet 1 tathä svapne viparyäsäd dharmäṃs tatraiva paśyati II

<sup>1</sup> For the use of Neppl in such cases see IV. 27.

- 'As in the waking state through mistake one may see unthinkable things as real, so in dream it is owing to mistake that one sees things only in that (state).'
- <sup>2</sup> The word jāgrad is taken here in the locative sense. See III. 29 together with S's commentary thereon and on IV. 40 (41): [jāgraj jāgarite. Cf. IV. 65 and BU, IV. 3. 14 with the comm. jāgraj jāgaritadeše. See also IV. 61, note 3.
  - 3 Such as rajju-sarpa 'string serpent,' etc.—S.

Having established above that a thing which are as false as that in a dream cannot come into being the author shows his conclusion of the *ajātivāda* by some other arguments:

# 40 (38)

utpādasyāprasiddhatvād ajam sarvam udāhṛtam I na ca bhūtād abhūtasya sambhavo 'sti kathañcana II

'As origination is not established all are said to be without origination. There is in no way origination of the non-existent from the existent.'

The origination of the non-existent, such as the horns of a hare, etc., is in no way seen.—\$.

In the next kārikā the author says with regard to causation referred to just now that it itself is not reasonable:

### 41 (40)

nāsty asaddhetukam asat sad asaddhetukam tathā I sac ca saddhetukam nāsti saddhetukam asat kutaḥ II

'There is no non-existent arising from the non-existent, nor is there any existent arising from the non-existent; again there is no existent arising from the existent and where is the non-existent arising from the existent?'

### Here are four points:

- (i) An unreal thing cannot have an unreal cause,
- (ii) nor can a real thing have an unreal cause; again,
- (iii) a real thing cannot have a real cause,
- (iv) nor can an unreal thing have a real cause.

### Let us read here the following from MK, XXI. 12:

- (iii) na bhāvāj jāyate bhāvo
- (ii) bhāvo 'bhāvān na jāyate!
- (i) [nābhāvāj jāyate 'bhāvo
- (iv) 'bhāvo bhāvān na jāyate 1 ]1

This is fully explained in MV. See the following from MK:

sadbhūtaḥ kārakaḥ karma sadbhūtaṃ na karoty ayam ! kārako nāpy asadbhūtaḥ karmāsadbhūtam īhate # VIII. 1.

satā ca kriyate nāsan nāsatā kriyate ca sat 1 kartrā sarve prasajyante doṣās tatra ta eva hi 11 VIII. 8.

näsadbhūto 'pi sadbhūtam sadasadbhūtam eva vā l karoti kārakah karma pūrvoktair eva hetubhih « VIII. 10.

These last two lines of the kārikā missing in Sanskrit are rightly reconstructed by Poussin from the Tibetan which runs as follows:

dňos. med. dňos. med mi. skye, ste | dňos. med. dňos. las. mi. skyeho ||

This kārīkā is identical with CS, 364 (XV. 14) of Āryadeva.

Having thus refuted the jātivāda and established thereby the ajātivāda of the Buddhists the author goes on to reconcile some statements made by the Buddhas themselves, which appear to be irreconcilable with the ajātivāda doctrine.

These statements, some of which are quoted in the foot-note, are in support of jāti. Besides, the Buddhas are found to have instructed their followers on causation, as their well-known pratītyasamutpāda 'dependent origination itself shows very clearly. It must, therefore, be admitted that the Buddhas have not denied jāti altogether. The Ācārya takes up the point and gives his reply in the following two kārikās, the first of which runs thus:

42

upalambhāt samācārād astivastutvavādinām I jātis tu deśitā buddhair ajātes trasatām sadā II

'But jāti is taught by the Buddhas for those who from their perception and common practice hold that things exist (in reality) and are afraid of (the doctrine of) ajāti.'

These people who are intent upon the reality of things around them are of a lower order and are consequently frightened when they hear of the doctrine of ajāti and nairātmya (absence of ātman, i.e., svabhāva 'nature') as taught by the Buddhas.<sup>3</sup> The Buddhas are, however,

- <sup>1</sup> PSP, p. 9: buddhā bhagavanta utpannāḥ, p. 79: pañcendriyāṇi utpatsyante, p. 91: arhantaḥ samyak saṃbuddhā loka utpatsyante; SN. IV, p. 14: yo bhikkhave cakkhussa uppādo ṭhiti abhinibbatti pātubhāvo; MV, p. 145: uktaṃ hi bhagavatā trīṇīmāni bhikṣavaḥ saṃskṛtasya saṃskṛtalakṣaṇāni. saṃskṛtasya bhikṣava utpādo'pi prajñāyate vyayo'pi sthityanyathātvam apīti. na ca avidyamānasya kharaviṣāṇasyeva jātyādilakṣaṇam asti. See also AN, I, p. 162.
  - 2 SN, IV, p. 33: cakkhuñ ca paticca rupe ca uppajjati cakkhuviññanam.
  - advitīyam šivadvāram kudṛṣṭīnām bhayaṅkaram |
    viṣayaḥ sarvabuddhānām iti nairātmyam ucyate ||
    asya dharmasya nāmno'pi bhayam utpadyate 'sataḥ
    balavān nāma ko dṛṣṭaḥ parasya na bhayaṅkaraḥ ||

CŚ, 288-289.

On the word nairātmya Candrakīrtti writes here: tatrātmā nāma yo 'parāyattasvarūpaḥ svabhāvaḥ [tadabhāvo nairātmyam]. Tibetan: de. med. pa. ni. bdag, med. paḥo.

very kind-hearted and so in order to lead them easily and gradually to the truth (tattvāvatāra)<sup>4</sup> followed the disposition of their minds and preached to them of jāti, though in fact there is nothing of the kind. The author himself says elsewhere (III. 15) that the creation described differently in the Upaniṣads with illustrations of earth, iron, sparks of fire and such other things is meant only as a means devised for making one 'descend to', i.e., realize, truth (upāyaḥ so'vatārāya). This act is called avatāraṇasandhi 'intention of making one descend' of the Buddha.<sup>5</sup> It has found its expression in Buddhist works from which some passages are quoted here in the foot-note.<sup>6</sup>

- 4 See MV, p. 340.
- MS, XII. 16-17: tatrāvatāraņābhisandhiḥ śrāvakeşu draṣṭavyaḥ, śāsanāvatāraṇārtham anuttrāsāya rūpādyastitvadeśanāt. The word sandhi is here in the sense of abhisandhi.
  - lokāvatāraṇārthaṃ ca bhāvā nāthena deśitāḥ |
    trāso nārabhyate 'dṛṣṭe dṛṣṭe 'parti sa sarvaśaḥ |
    niyamenaiva kiñcijjñe tena trāso vidhīyate || C\$, 283.

Candrakīrttion CŚ, 183:

tattvāvatārasopānabhūtatvāt pravīttyupadeśo'pi kartavyaḥ. lokāvatāropāyatvāt sadasadādideśanānāṃ.

Op. cit., 196.

dharmadhātor asambhedād yānabhedo 'sti na prabho | yānatritayam ākhyātaṃ tvayā sattvāvatārataḥ ||

NSt, 21.

nānavadhārya yathārtham śūnyatām kaścic chaktah samsāre sangam avadhūya nirvānaspihām utpādayitum. sa ca śūnyatārtho jagatām atīvottrāsakaratvād apriyāvedananipunapuruṣeṇa rājāah priyabhāryāmaraṇakramāvedana-saumanasyotpādanavat kayāpi yuktyā viduṣāvatāryah.

Cś, a p. 514.

astitvanāstyadīstipatitānām tesām uttrāsah syād iti uttrāsyamānā mahāmate d ūre bhavanti mahāyānāt. LA, p. 167.

etāni kāsyapa panca bhiksusatāni dṛṣṭipraskandhānīmām gambhīrām dharmadesanām nāvataranti nāvagāhante nādhimucyanta uttrasyanti saṃtrasyanti santrāsam āpadyante. KP (=Ratnakūṭa) in MV, pp. 337-338.

As regards the different modes of teaching of the Buddhas he following couplet may be quoted:

deśanā lokanāthānām sattvāśayavaśānugā! bhidyate bahudhā loka upāyair bahubhih kila||<sup>7</sup>

'The teachings of the Lords of the worlds (i.e., the Buddhas) following the disposition of the people differ in the world in many ways according to the diversity of methods.'s

That was their 'skilfulness in method (upāyakauśalya) by which all discrepancies in their teachings are explained.

tatra tathāgato mahākāruṇiko lokatrāsapadaparihārārthaṃ vyavahāravasād uktavān utpadyante nirudhyante ca na cātra kasyacid dharmasyotpādo na nirodha iti. BAP, p. 589.

evam ukte bhagavān āyuṣmantaṃ śāriputram etad avocat, alaṃ śāriputra etenārthena bhāṣitena, tat kasya hetoḥ, uttrasiṣyati śāriputrāyaṃ sadevako loko 'sminn arthe vyākriyamāṇe. SP, II, p. 36.

āha. yad etad uktam bhagavatā samskṛtā dharmā utpadyante nirudhyante cety asya tathāgatabhāṣitasya ko 'bhiprāyaḥ. āha. utpādanirodhābhiniviṣṭaḥ kulaputra lokasamniveśaḥ. tatra tathāgato mahākāruniko lokasyottrāsapadaparihārārtham vyavahāravaśād uktavān utpadyante nirudhyante ca. na cātra kasyacid dharmasyotpādo na nirodha iti. \$\$5, p. 263.

See also MN, I. 136-137; SR, pp. 70-71.

7 Bodhicittavivarana (Tib. version) 97-98. It is quoted in the Buddhist section of SSD. See The Basic Conception of Buddhism, pp. 27ff. Sometimes there is in d of the kārika punaḥ for kila.

#### 8 See

kṛtvā dharmeṣv avasthānaṃ tattvaṃ deśemi yoginām |
tattvaṃ pratyātmagatikaṃ kļpyakalpena varjitaṃ ||
deśemi jinaputrāṇaṃ neyaṃ bālāna deśanāḥ |
vicitrā'hi yathā māyā dṛśyate na ca vidyate |
deśanāpi tathā citrā deśyate vyabhicāriṇī ||
deśanā hi yad anyasya tad anyasyāpy adeśanā |
āture āture yadvad bhiṣag dravyaṃ prayacchati ||

LA. pp. 48-49.

See also Op. cit, X. 611-613 (pp. 340-341); SP, pp. 44 ff.; SS, pp. 14-15; MV, pp. 359-360, 369-372.

Now, when there is in fact no jāti it is certainly no good to teach it and consequently some evil would result from such teaching. The author, however, says that in reality there would arise no evil, or if it actually does, it would be very small which can easily be overcome (by following the path of the truth):

#### 43

ajātes trasatām teṣām upalambhād viyanti ye l jātidoṣā na setsyanti doṣo'py alpo bhaviṣyati l

'Those who (being instructed of ajāti) go asunder owing to the perception (of things) and are afraid of (thinking) ajāti, are not affected with the evils resulting from (the perception of) jāti; (or if there be any evil) the evil will be a small one.'

The reality of a thing cannot be proved on the evidence of mere perception and common practice. For an elephant called up by illusion ( $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}hastin$ ) cannot exist in fact though we all may see it moving or carrying men. Thus the author says that it is only on account of perception and common practice that it is said of a thing that it exists, but in reality it does not:

#### 44

upalambhāt samācārān māyāhastī yathocyate I upalambhāt samācārād asti vastu tathocyate I

'As an elephant called up by illusion is said to exist owing to perception and common practice, so on the same grounds it is said of a thing that it exists.'

1 For māyāhastin see LA, X, 126: māyāhastī yathā citram patrāņi kanakā yathā | tathā dṛśyam nṛṇām khyāti citte ajūānavāsite || TSN, 27-28:

mayākṛtaṃ mantravaśāt khyāti hastyātmanā yathā | ākāramātraṃ tatrāsti hastī nāsti tu sarvathā || svabhāvah kalpito hastī paratantras tadākṛtiḥ | yas tatra hastyabhāvo 'sau pariniṣpanna iṣyate |

In the next kārikā the author says, as a Vijūānavādin can say, that there is only vijūāna (=citta) 'mind', and nothing else, yet it appears variously:

45

jātyābhāsam calābhāsam vastvābhāsam tathaiva ca l ajācalam avastutvam vijñānam śāntam advayam !

'There is only vijnāna without the two (advaya),¹ which is quiescent (free from all sorts of disturbances), it has no origin (aja 'unborn'),² it does not move (acala), nor is it an object (avastutva),³ yet it appears to have an origin (jātyābhāsa), it appears to admit movements (calābhāsa), and it also appears to be an object.

It is to be noted here that vijñāna, citta and manas are synonyms. See LA. X. 459:

cittam vikalpo vijnaptir mano vijnanam eva ca | alayas tribhavas cesta ete cittasya paryayah ||

- <sup>1</sup> The word dvaya refers to grāhya and grāhaka 'the percipient and the perceptible' respectively.
- <sup>2</sup> But truly speaking according to the Buddhist theory it cannot be described even as aja See IV. 74.
  - 3 Literally, one that has no quality of an object.
- 4 Here in the kārikā under discussion the word vijāāna does not refer to Ātman or Brahman of the Vedāntist. The following kārikā (46) using citta which alludes to vijāāna in the present kārikā clearly bears it out. Ś takes here vijāāna as vijāapti, but in the next kārikā (IV. 46) he interprets it in the sense of ātman (: evam eva yathoktam vijāānam jātyādirahitam advayam ātmatattvam vijānantah).

Ak. II. 34:

cittam mano'tha vijnanam ekartham.

Cf. SN, II. 94.

What follows from this discussion is shown in the next kārikā:

46

evam na jāyate cittam<sup>1</sup> evam dharmā ajāḥ smṛtāḥ l evam eva vijānanto na patanti viparyaye ll<sup>2</sup>

- 'Thus the mind is not originated, and thus the objects<sup>3</sup> are declared to be without origination. Those who know it in this way do not fall into error.'
  - 1 Cf. YV, III. 13-15: evam na jāyate kiñcit.
  - <sup>2</sup> See IV, 58.
- <sup>3</sup> Stakes here the word to imply ātmans, but in IV. 54 to mean external things (bāhyadharmāh); and in IV. 58 he writes ātmāno 'nue ca dharmāh.

This truth is profusely illustrated in the next kārikās (47-52) by the simile of a fire-brand (alāta). The author says, that as the different appearances of a fire-brand in motion, such as a circle or a straight line, do not come into existence from a thing other than itself, nor do they go out to a place other than itself when it is at rest, and at the same time they do not enter into itself, even so when the mind vibrates its appearances in the form of different objects they do not come into

being from any thing other than itself, and when it does not vibrate they do not go out anywhere, nor do they enter into it:

#### 47

rjuvakrādikābhāsam alātam spanditam¹ yathā t grahanagrāhakābhāsam vijñānam spanditam tathā² 11

- 'As a fire-brand being moved appears to be straight, or crooked, and so on, even so the mind when it moves appears as the perceiver (i.e., subject) and the perceptible (i.e., object).'
- 1 Comparing and considering all the readings in kārikās 47-51 in connection with the use of vijāāna and the derivatives of the root spand I think in the present kārikā one may incline to read alātaṃ spanditaṃ and not alataspanditaṃ, a compound word, though the former is not supported by any MS consulted by me. In either case the import of the karika is the same.
- <sup>2</sup> Cf. cittaspanditam (with the variant cittam spandati vai sarvam) in IV.
  72, with vijñānam spanditam (or vijñānaspanditam) in d of the present kārikā.

### 48

aspandamānam ālātam anābhāsam ajam yathā l aspandamānam vijnānam anābhāsam ajam tathā l

'As a fire-brand when it does not move has no appearance (of its being straight, crooked, etc.), and is (thus) 'unborn', even so when the mind does not move it has no appearance (of any subject or object), and is (thus) 'unborn.'

For anābhāsa in the text cf. arūpaka, III. 36.

In the text ālāta supported by many MSS, is, according to lexicons, another form of alāta.

49

alāte spandamāne vai nābhāsā anyatobhuvaḥ 1 na tato 'nyatra nispandān nālātaṃ praviśanti te II

'The appearances in a moving fire-brand are not produced from anything other than it, and when it is at rest they are not in a place other than it (the fire-brand), nor do they enter into it.'

50

na nirgatā alātāt te dravyatvābhāvayogataḥ t<sup>1</sup> vijñāne 'pi tathaiva syur ābhāsasyāviśeṣataḥ #

'They (i.e., the appearances) do not go out from the firebrand, for they have no qualities of a substance (dravya), and with reference to the mind, too, they must be the same, for there is no difference in appearances.'

It is a substance, dravya<sub>3</sub> that can move from one place to another, but appearances are not substances, and hence they cannot move. The second half of the kārikā says that as an appearance there is no difference whatsoever in the two cases, that is, the case of a fire-brand and that of the mind.

1 See IV. 52a-b.

51

vijnane spandamane vai nabhasa anyatobhuvah 1 na tato 'nyatra vijnanan na vijnanam visanti te 1

'When the mind vibrates the appearances are not produced from anything other than it and when it is at rest they are not in a place other than it (the mind), nor do they enter into the mind.'

52

na nirgatās te vijāānād dravyatvābhāvayogataḥ l¹kāryakāraṇatābhāvād yato 'cintyāḥ sadaiva te l

'They do not go out from the mind, for they have no qualities of a substance, and as there is no state of cause and effect they are always unthinkable.'

All this is Buddhistic, and so are also arguments and the words as the following quotations will show:

sa mahārāja tāvān abdhātur utpadyamāno na kutaścid āgacchati° niruddhyamāno na kvacid gacchati.

Pitāputrasamāgamasūtra quoted in SS, pp. 247.

evam eva kulaputra teṣāṃ tathāgatānāṃ kāyapariniṣpattir na kutaścid daśa diśi lokād āgatā nāpi kvacid daśa diśi loke gacchati.° tad yathāpi nāma kulaputra vīṇāyāḥ śabda utpadyamāno na kutaścid āgacchati nirudhyamāno 'pi na kvacid gacchati na kvacit saṃkrāmati.°

ASP, pp. 515-516.

anyato nāpi cāyātam na tiṣṭhati na gacchati |
māyātaḥ ko viśeṣo 'sya yan mūḍhaiḥ satyataḥ kṛtam ||
māyayā nirmitam yacca hetubhir yac ca nirmitam |
āyāti tat kutaḥ kutra yāti ceti nirūpyatām ||

BA, IX. 143-144.

Cf. āgacchaty anyato nāgnir indhane 'gnir na vidyate | MK, X. 13.

atha paṇḍitu kaś ci mārgate kuta 'yam āgatu kutra yāti vā | vidiśo diśa sarvi mārgato nāgatir nāsya gatiś ca labhyati ||

quoted in MV, p. 216; BAP, p. 533; \$S, p. 240.

1 See IV. 505-4.

utpannasyāgatir nāsti niruddhasya gatis tathā | evaṃ sati kathaṃ naiva bhavo māyopamo bhavet ||<sup>2</sup> CS, 360.

This is reconstructed by the present author from the Tibetan text which runs;

skyes. pa. la. ni. ḥon. ba. dan | de. bzin. ḥgags. la. ḥgro. ba. med | de. ltar. yin. na. ci. lta. bur | srid. pa. sgyu. ma. ḥdra. ma. yin ||

It is shown (IV. 14-18, 52) that there is no causation (hetu-phalābhāva or kāryakāraṇatābhāva). This is further explained in the following kārikā:

53

dravyam dravyasya hetuh syād anyad anyasya caiva hi t dravyatvam anyabhāvo vā dharmāṇām nopapadyate II

'A substance can be a cause of another substance; and a thing can be the cause of a different thing only; but it is unreasonable to hold that things can have substantiality or mutual difference.'

A substance sust have three qualities, (i) origination (utpāda), (ii) change (vyaya), and (iii) continuance (sthiti). But in fact there is no such thing called substance, as the Buddhists hold. See MK with MV, VII; AN, I. 152. Again, it is well-known that from one thing a different thing is produced, and not the same thing from the same thing; for instance, from a seed there is the sprout. Thus there is a difference between a cause and its effect. But in reality this difference, too, cannot be maintained. See MK, X.1 and 15:

yad indhanam sa ced agnir ekatvam kartṛkarmaṇoḥ | anyaś ced indhanād agnir indhanād apy ṛte bhavet || agnīndhanābhyām vyākhyāta ātmopādānayoḥ kramaḥ | sarvo niravaśeṣeṇa sārdham ghaṭapaṭādibhiḥ ||

The author arrives at the conclusion:

54

evam na cittajā dharmās cittam vāpi na dharmajam levam hetuphalājātim pravisanti manīsiņah l

'Thus the things are not produced from the mind (citta = vijāāna), nor the mind from the things. And thus the wise enter into (the doctrine of) the non-origination of cause and effect.'

Cf. IV. 46.

55

yāvad dhetuphalāveśas tāvad dhetuphalodbhavaḥ I kṣīṇe hetuphalāveśe nāsti hetuphalodbhavaḥ II

'As long as there is a strong adherence to cause and effect there is the origination of cause and effect, but when the strong adherence to cause and effect is lost there is no existence of cause and effect.'

Here and in the next kārikā (56) the word āveśa in the text is the same as abhiniveśa (IV. 75, 79) 'strong adherence.' These are synonyms (to which graha and grāha, may be added). The latter is frequently used in Buddhist works in which it is clearly shown that not only cause and effect but everything round us owes its existence to one's stong adherence to it. The following may be cited here:

tad yathāpi nāma mahārāja puruṣaḥ suptaḥ svapnāntare piśācena paritāpyamāno bhītaḥ sammoham āpadyate. sa śayita-vibuddhas taṇ piśācaṃ taṃ ca moham anusmaret. tat kiṃ manyase mahārāja saṃvidyate svapne piśācaḥ saṃmoho vā.

yāvad evam eva mahārāja bālo 'śrutavān pṛthagjanaś cakṣuṣā rūpāṇi dṛṣṭvā upekṣāsthānīyāny abhiniviśate 'bhiniviṣṭaḥ san muhyati mūḍho mohajaṃ karmābhisaṃskaroti.

ŚS, p. 254.

bālo mañjuśrīr aśrutavān pṛthagjano 'tyantaparinirvṛtān sarvadharmān aprajānāna ātmānam param copalabhate, upalabhy [ābhiniviśate abhiniviṣṭaḥ san rajyate duṣyate muhyate. sa rakto duṣṭamūḍhaḥ san] trividham karmābhisamskaroti.

MV, p. 296.

yas tu bhāvasvarūpam adhyāropya tadvigamāvigamata etā dṛṣṭīr utpādyābhiniviśate. tasyām abhiniveśo nirvāṇapuragāminaṃ panthānaṃ viruṇaddhi, saṃsārikeṣu ca duḥkheṣu niyojayatīti vijñeyaṃ.

Op. cit., p. 537.

56

yāvad dhetuphalāveśaḥ saṃsāras tāvad āyataḥ I kśīṇe hetuphalāveśe saṃsāro nopapadyate II

'As long as there is a strong adherence to cause and effect the world is extended, but when that strong adherence to cause and effect is lost the world is not possible.'

Thus having propounded to some extent the vijñānavāda our author proceeds incidentally to show also with the Buddhists that neither of the two theories, śāśvatavāda 'the theory that everything is eternal' and ucchedavāda 'the theory that every thing has annihilation' can be maintained:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> These two views are specially with regard to soul and world. See, for i nstance, DN, I. 13, 39; MK XXVII.

57

samvṛtyā <sup>1</sup> jāyate sarvam śāśvatam tena nāsti vai I svabhāvena <sup>2</sup> hy ajam sarvam ucchedas tena nāsti vai II

'In the practical truth (samvṛti) everything comes into being; hence there is nothing eternal. (On the other hand), everything is naturally without origination; hence there is no annihilation.'

It says that in the practical truth we say that a thing comes into being. In that case we cannot hold, so far as the practical truth is concerned, that there is any eternal thing. For that which has origination cannot be eternal, as an earthen jar. Again, as we have seen above, nothing has naturally any origination, and one that has no origination can have no annihilation also.

It is a fact that a sprout comes out only if there is a seed and not otherwise. Now the sprout is neither identical with, nor different from the seed. When there is a sprout the seed is not completely destroyed, nor is it absolutely in the same state as before. Hence it can be said that there is neither eternality nor annihilation.<sup>3</sup>

- 1 See IV. 73.
- <sup>2</sup> All MSS. and editions examined by me read sadbhāvena for svabhāvena in c, yet I think the latter to be the actual reading. Everywhere in similar cases the author employs svabhāva (III. 22, IV. 8, 10, 23, 81) and not sadbhāva. In the same sense he uses also the word prakṛti (III. 21, IV. 9, 29, 91, 92, 93, 94). If one accepts the reading sadbhāvena the meaning will be, according to 5, 'in transcendental truth' (paramārthasadbhāvena-pāramārthikasattayā). That the reading is svabhāvena is supported also by IV. 29 in which we read ajātiḥ prakṛtiḥ.
  - bijasya sato yathānkuro na ca yo bija sa caiva ankuro | na ca anyu tato na caiva tad evam anuccheda-aśāśvatadharmatā || mudrāt pratimudra dṛśyate mudrasamkrānti na copalabhyate | na ca tatra na caiva sānyato evam samskāra 'nucchedaśāśvatāḥ ||

LV, 210.

Some of the teachers hold either of these two theories, the śāśvatavāda 'the theory of eternality,' and ucchedavāda 'the theory of annihilation.' But in the teachings of the Buddhas who maintain the Middle Path (madhyamā pratipad), there is no room for any one of them. So his doctrine is said to be free from both the theories (anuccheda aśāśvata).<sup>4</sup> This view of the Buddhists is too well-known to require here any particular treatment.

The Buddhists also proclaim that there are two truths (satya) which they call samurti satya 'practical or empirical truth' and paramārtha satya 'absolute or supreme or transcendental truth,' corresponding to vyavahāranaya and paramārthanaya of the Jainas, and vyāvaharika satya and pāramārthika satya of Ś respectively.<sup>5</sup>

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sūnyatā ca na cocchedah saṃsāras ca na sāsvataṃ |
karmaṇo vipraṇāsas ca dharmo buddhena desitaḥ || MK, XVII. 20.
yasmāt pravartate bhāvas tenocchedo na jāyate || CS, X. 25.
utpādabhaṅgarahito lokaḥ khapuṣpasannibhaḥ |
sadasan nopalabdho 'yaṃ prajñayā kṛpayā ca te ||
śāśvatocchedavarjas ca lokaḥ svapnasamaḥ sadā | LV, X. 1-2.
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anekārtham anānārtham anucchedam aśāśvataṃ l etat tal lokanāthānāṃ buddhānāṃ śāśanāmṛtaṃ ! MK, XVIII. 11.

For the  $ucchedav\bar{a}da$  and  $s\bar{a}svatav\bar{a}da$  in Brahmanical literature see  $Vy\bar{a}sa$  on YS, II. 15, and MB, XII. 222 :

ucchedanisihā nehāsti bhāvanisihā na vidyate 1 6 evam sati ka ucchedaḥ śāśvato vā katham bhavet ' 5

dve satye samupāśritya buddhānām dharmadeśanā |
lokasamvṛtisatyam ca satyam ca paramārthataḥ ||
ye 'nayor na vijānanti vibhāgam satyayor dvayoḥ |
te tattvam na vijānanti gambhītam buddhasāsane ||
vyavahāram anāśritya paramārtho na deśyate |
paramārtham anāgamya nirvāṇam nādhigamyate || MK, XXIV. 8-10.
duve saccāni akkhāsi sambuddho vadatam varo |
sammutim paramattham ca tatiyam nūpalabbhati ||

quoted by Buddhaghoşain the Atthakathā on KV, p. 30; Sumangalavilāsinī (DN: Potthapādasutta), p. 251. It may be observed here that these two truths are not specified in the Upanisads and I am inclined to think that S has accepted them in his system from the Buddhists through G a u d a p ā d a.

satya ime duvi lokavidūnām dista svayam asruņitva pareṣām |
samvṛti yā ca tathā paramārtho satyu na sidhyati kim ca tṛtīyu ||
Pitāputrasamāgama quoted in BAP, pp. 361-362.

samvṛtih paramarthas ca satyadvayam idam matam | BA, IX. 2.

On the explanation of samviti see BAP, pp. 352 ff: samviyata āvriyate yathābhūtaparijūānam svabhāvāvaranād āvitaprakāśanāc cānayeti samvitih. avidyā moho viparyās iti paryāyāh. MV, pp. 492-3: samantād varanam samvitih, ajūānam hi samantāt sarvapadārthatattvācchādanāt samvitir ity ucyate.° atha vā samvitih samketo lokavyavahāra ityarthah. sa cābhidhānābhidheyajūānajñeyādilakṣaṇaḥ. loke samvitir lokasamvitih. See MA, VI. 28:

mohaḥ svabhāvāvaraṇād dhi saṃvṛtiḥ satyaṃ tayā khyāti yad eva kṛtrimaṃ | jagāda tat saṃvṛtisatyam ity asu muniḥ padārthaṃ kṛtakaṃ ca saṃvṛtiṃ || quoted in BAP, p. 353.

58

dharmā ya iti jāyante samvītyā te na tattvatah 1¹ janma māyopamam teṣām sā ca māyā na vidyate 11

'The things which are said as generated are so in the empirical truth and not in fact. Their generation is like illusion, and that illusion, too, does not exist.'

The phrase 'generation is like illusion' may be explained saying that generation is like illusion, but itself is not illusion. The true sense is, however, not so. It says that generation is

identical with illusion, there being no difference whatsoever between them (advayam advaidhīkāram).<sup>2</sup>

As regards the non-existence of illusion see
yāvat pratyayasāmagrī tāvan māyāpi vartate |
BC, IX. 10.

See also 27, 28.

<sup>2</sup> See ASP, pp. 39-40: kim punar ärya subhüte mäyopamäs te sattvä na te mäyä. subhütih avocat. mäyopamäs te sattvä iti mäyä ca sattvä cädvayam etad advaidhikäram iti.

According to this Mādhyamika theory even the Buddha and nirvāṇa, and, if there is anything higher than nirvāṇa, that, too, are illusion, i.e., those things and illusion are one and the same thing.

59

yathä māyāmayād bījāj jāyate tanmayo 'nkuraḥ l nāsau nityo na cocchedī tadvad dharmeşu yojanā II

'From an illusive seed comes forth an illusive sprout, and that (sprout) is neither eternal nor is attended with destruction. The same applies to all things.'

Cf. yathā hi kṛtakād bîjāj jāyate tanmayo 'nkuraḥ | CS, X. 28.

This is the reconstructed text from the Tibetan which runs:

ji. ltar. sa. bon. byas. pa. las |

myu. gu. byas. pa. skye. ḥgyur. ba ||

60

nājesu sarvadharmesu śāśvatāśāśvatābhidhā | yatra varņā na vartante vivekas tatra nocyate ||

'When all things are without generation, there is no room for the appellations 'eternal' and 'non-eternal'; for where words fail discrimination cannot be expressed.'

The following may be cited here:

yasmāt pravartate bhāvas tenocchedo na jāyate | yasmān nivartate bhāvas tena nityo na jāyate||

CŚ, XI. 25.

Now the Ācārya takes up again the vijīānavāda of the Buddhists showing that there is nothing but the citta which is the same as vijīāna or manas 'mind' that is transformed into the external world. And in doing so he shows that there is no difference whatsoever between the experiences in the waking state and those in dream, as has already been shown (II. 1-10):

61

yathā svapne dvayābhāsam cittam calati māyayā l tathā jāgrad dvayābhāsam cittam calati māyayā ll<sup>1</sup>

'As owing to illusion the mind in dream moves with the appearance of the two (i.e., the subject and the object, or, in other words, the percipient and the perceived)<sup>2</sup>, even so owing to illusion the mind in waking condition<sup>3</sup> moves with the appearance of the two.'

- <sup>1</sup> This as well as the next kārikā is the same as III. 29 and 30 respectively with a few variants.
- <sup>2</sup> See IV. 72: grāhyagrāhakavad dvayam; IV. 75; \$ on III. 29, 30: grāhyagrāhakarūpena dvayābhāsam. In Buddhist works in such cases the word dvaya is frequently used in the same meaning. For instance, advayārthena pasyati, MS, XIV. 32; dvayagrāhavisaṃyuktaṃ grāhyagrāhagrāhakagrāhavisaṃyogāt, advayārthenāti agrāhyagrāhakārthena, Ibid, p. 94. See II. 14; III. 29, 30; IV. 62, 72, 75, 87.
- 3 The word jāgrad is to be taken here in the locative case. See IV. 39, note and 62.4

62

advayam ca dvayābhāsam cittam svapne na samsayah I advayam ca dvayābhāsam cittam jāgran na samsayah II

'There is no doubt that in dream the mind which is without the two has the appearance of the two, even so there is no doubt that in the waking state the mind which is without the two has the appearance of the two.'

See III, 30.

<sup>1</sup> See IV. 61, notes.

# 63, 64

svapnadık pracaran svapne dikşu vai daśasu sthitān I andajān svedajān vāpi jīvān paśyati yān sadā II

svapnadıkcittadışyās te na vidyante tatah pıthak! tathā taddışyam¹ evedam svapnadıkcittam isyate ||²

'The animals, oviparous or engendered by heat and moisture, which a dreamer moving in dream sees at any time in any of the ten directions, are visible (only) to the mind of the dreamer, and do not exist apart from it (i.e., mind); and this which is visible only to it (i.e., the mind) is to be accepted (lit. wished) as the mind of the dreamer.

<sup>1</sup> See IV. 77.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See IV. 65, 66.

65, 66

carañ jāgarite jāgrad dikṣu vai daśasu sthitān I aṇḍajān svedajān vāpi jīvān paśyati yān sadā II

jāgraccittekṣaṇīyās te na vidyante tataḥ pṛthak l tathā taddṛśyam evedaṃ jāgrataś cittam iṣyate ∥¹

'The animals, oviparous or engendered by heat and moisture, which a waking one moving about in the state of wakefulness sees at any time in any of the ten directions, are visible (only) by the mind of the waking one and do not exist apart from it (i.e., the mind of the waking one); and this which is visible only to it (i.e., the mind of the waking one) is to be accepted as the mind of the waking one.'

In these four kārikās (IV. 63-66) it is said that whatever one sees in the waking state is nothing but one's citta 'mind', just as the things in one's dream. This view has repeatedly been expressed among others in LA, and specially in its Chapter X where the Buddha is reported to have said again and again that all the phenomena are citta (X. 483, 484, 692): cittamātram vadāmy aham 'I say (all this is) only citta.' <sup>2</sup>

The word cittadrsya here (IV. 64) and elsewhere (IV. 28, 36, 77) of which the equivalent is citteksaniya (IV. 66) is found in frequent use in LA, pp. 56 (four times), 79, 84 (twice), 93, 94, 186 (twice), 338 (twice), etc.

- <sup>1</sup> See IV. 63, 64.
- <sup>2</sup> See also X. 101:

svacittābhinivešena cittam vai sampravartate | bahirdhā nāsti vai dišyam ato vai cittamātrakam || 67

ubhe hy anyonyadršye te kim tad astīti cocyate l lakṣaṇāśūnyam ubhayam tanmatenaiva gṛḥyate II

'You say that the cognition of both of them is dependent on each other, but you do not say what remains then. Both of them have no characteristics, yet they are cognized owing to their (previous) thought.'

In the text ubha and ubhaya refer to 'mind' (citta) and jīvas or objects in general referred to in the preceding kārikās. Their cognition depends on each other; for no object is perceived without the thought of the object, nor is the thought of an object possible without the existence of the object. So they are interdependent in this respect. Owing to this interdependence neither of them is established as a real thing, and as such they have no characteristics and yet they are cognized owing to our previously existing thoughts of them.

The following may be quoted on this point:

atītam subhūte cittam nopalabhyate. anāgatam cittam nopalabhyate. VC, 39.

uktam ca lokanāthena cittam cittam na paśyati | na cchinatti yathātmānam asidhārā tathā manaḥ ||

BA, IX. 17-18.

sa cittam gaveṣayamāṇo nādhyātmam cittam samanupaśyati na bahirdhā cittam samanupaśyati na skandheṣu cittam samanupaśyati. nadhātuṣu cittam samanupaśyati. nāyataneṣu cittam samanupaśyati. sa cittam asamanupaśyamś cittadhārām paryeṣate kutaś cittasyotpattir iti. ālambane sati cittam utpadyate. tat kim anyat cittam anyad ālambanam. atha yad

<sup>1</sup> Śwrites: na hi ghaţamatim pratyākhyāya ghaţo gṛhyate nāpi ghaţam pratyākhyāya ghaṭamatih. tanmatenaiva taccittatayaiva.

evālambanam tad eva cittam. yadi tāvad anyad ālambanam anyac cittam tad dvicittatā bhaviṣyati. atha yad evālambanam tad eva cittam, tat katham cittam cittam paśyati. na hi cittam cittam samanupaśyati. tad yathā no tayeväsidhārayā saivāsidhārā śakyate chettum. na tenaivāngulyagrena tad evāngulyagram spraṣṭum śakyate. evam eva tenaiva cittena tad eva cittam draṣṭum iti vistaraḥ.

Āryaratnacūdasūtra quoted in BAP, pp. 392-393; MV, pp. 62-63; SS, p. 235.

For lakṣaṇāśūnya which is the same as lakṣaṇa° in meaning see the following:

yad dhi cittam mahāmate na nityam nānityam na kāryam na kāranam na samskṛtam nāsamskṛtam na lakṣanam tad vānmātram tad anutpannam yad anutpannam tad aniruddham ākāśasamam. tatredam ucyate

pramāņendriyanirmuktam na kāryam nāpi kāraņam | buddhiboddhavyarahitam lakṣyalakṣaṇavarjitam ||

LA, pp. 189-190.

tasmān na vidyate lakṣyam lakṣaṇam naiva vidyate | lakṣyalakṣaṇanirmukto bhāvo 'pi naiva vidyate ||

MK, V. 5.

upāyadeśanā mahyam nāham deśemi lakṣaṇam | bālā gṛhṇanti bhāvena lakṣaṇam lakṣyam eva ca ||

LA, X. 21:

lakşyalakşanavarjitam.

Op. cit., X-224.

#### 68-70

yathā svapnamayo jīvo jāyate mriyate 'pi ca l' tathā jīvā amī sarve bhavanti na bhavanti ca || 1201H—22 yathā māyāmayo jīvo jāyate mriyate 'pi ca l tathā jīvā amī sarve bhavanti na bhavanti ca II

yathā nirmitako jīvo jāyate mriyate 'pi ca l tathā jīvā amī sarve bhavanti na bhavanti ca l

'As a creature formed of dream, or made of illusion or supernatural power (nirmitaka1) takes birth and dies, even so all those creatures exist and do not exist.'

The word *nirmita* or *nirmitaka* in the above sense is frequently used mainly in Buddhist works. Among many others the following may be quoted here:

nirmitopamāḥ pratibimbopamāḥ sarvadharmāḥ jñātavyāḥ. SR, p. 27.

acintiyān nirmita nirminotyādeśeti dharmam bahu prāṇakoṭinam |

Ibid., p. 23.

yathā nirmitakaṃ śāstā nirmimītardhisampadā | nirmito nirmimītānyaṃ sa ca nirmitakaḥ punaḥ ||² tathā nirmitakākāraḥ kartā yat karma tat kṛtaṃ | tad yathā nirmitenānyo nirmito nirmitas tathā ||

MK, XVII. 31-32.

ekasmim bhāṣamānasmim sabbe bhāsanti nimmitā | ekasmim tuṇhīm āsīne sabbe tuṇhī bhavanti ca ||

DN. II. 212.

<sup>1</sup> Ś. says nirmitako mantrauṣadhyādibhir abhiniṣpāditaḥ 'created by incantation, herbs, etc.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Śūnyatāsaptati as quoted by Poussinina note on MV, p. 330,

## ĀGAMAŚĀSTRA

The following is the Sanskrit version:

'ekasya bhāṣamāṇasya sarve bhāṣanti nirmitāḥ | ekasya tūṣṇīmbhūtasya sarve tūṣṇīṃ bhavanti ca ||

Quoted as in *Agama* in MV, p. 331; DA, p. 166; AKV, p. 2

See Āryaratnakūṭasūtra quoted in MV, pp. 336 fl Āryagaganagañjasūtra quoted in ŚS, p. 270; BA, V. 57. C the nimūṇakūya of a Buddha. Poussin: The Three Bodie of a Buddha, JRAS, 1906, (Oct.); JA, 1913, pp. 581 fl ERE, Vol. 9, pp. 852-853.

The use of such words as nirmāṇa, nirmāṇakāya, ar nirmāṇacitta occurs also in the Yoga system (YS, IV. 4, 5 wi scholiasts).

The use of the word nirmana in almost the same sense can, however, be traced back to Upanisadic texts:

sa yatra prasvapity asya lokasya sarvāvato mātrām upādā svayam vihatya svayam nirmāya° prasvapiti. BU, IV. 3, 9.

ya eşa supteşu jāgarti kāmam kāmam puruşo nirmimāṇaḥ KU. V.

It appears, however, that it is the Buddhists who first use the word in that definite sense.

Now having thus established his thesis the author asser his conclusion in the following kārikā, which is already four once more (III. 48):

# 71

na kaścij jāyate jīvaḥ¹ sambhavo 'sya na vidyate l etat tad uttamam satyam² yatra kiñcin na jāyate l

<sup>1</sup> Cf. SR quoted in MV, p. 109: na hi kaści jāyati na ca mriyate.

For the wording cf. etat tu paramam satyam, MV, p. 120.

'No Jiva of any kind takes birth, nor is there any possibility of it. It is that highest truth in which nothing originates.'

See III. 48.

Now it is affirmed in the next kārikā that the world consisting of the subject and the object has no reality at all, it being the creation of the movement of mind which in fact has no object at all, and as such it is held to be always free from any sort of attachment or relationship to an object (asanga):

72

cittaspanditam evedam grāhyagrāhakavad dvayam ) cittam nirvisayam nityam asangam tena kīrttitam ||

This duality which consists of the subject and the object (lit. the perceiver and the perceptible) is only the vibration of the citta 'mind'. citta has no object, therefore it is said to be always asanga 'having no attachment (or relation to an object).'

See IV. 79 (niḥsaṅga). Cf. anābhāsa (=nirābhāsa), III. 46; IV. 48.

As regards asanga see LA, p. 157: asangalakṣaṇaṃ jñānaṃ viṣayavaicitryasangalakṣaṇaṃ vijñānam°, asangasvabhāvalakṣaṇaṃ jñānam.

The following lines also from the LA may be cited here: cittamātram idam sarvam dvidhā cittam pravartate | grāhyagrāhakabhāvena ātmātmīyam na vidyate || brahmādisthana(?)paryantam cittamātram vadāmy aham | cittamātravinirmuktam brahmādir nopalabhyate ||

cittamātram na drśyoʻsti dvidhā cittam hi drśyate | grāhyagrāhakabhāvena śāśvatocchedavarjitam ||

III. 65.

grāhyagrāhakabhāvena cittam namati dehinām l dṛṣyasya lakṣaṇam nāsti yathā bālair vikalpyate ||

X. 58.

tarangā hy udadher yadvat pavanapratyeritāḥ | nṛṭyamānāḥ pravartante vyucchedaś ca na vidyate ||

ālayaughas tathā nityam visayapavaneritah | citrais tarangavijūānair nrtyamānah pravartate ||

II. 99, 100; X. 56, 57.

Cf. (i) spandāspandasvabhāvam hi cinmātram iha vidyate | khe vāta iva tat spandāt sollāsam šāntam anyathā ||

cittvam (?) cittam bhāvitam sat spanda ity ucyate budhaih | dṛśyatvābhāvitam caitad aspandanam iti smṛtam ||

spandāt sphurati citsargo niḥspandād brahma śāśvatam I jīvakāraṇakarmādyā citspandasyābhidhā smṛtā ||

YV, III. 67. 6-8.

(ii) svabhāvād vyatiriktam tu na cittasyāsti cetanam | spandād rte yathā vāyor antah kim nāma cetyate ||

Op. cit., III. 66. 16.

Having shown that the duality consisting of the subject and the object is the creation of mind the author says in the next kārikā that its existence is only in empirical (samviti) and not in absolute (paramārtha) truth. For a thing which is

dependent (paralantra) for its existence may exist in empirical and not in absolute truth:

73

yo 'sti kalpitasamvṛtyā paramārthena nāsty asau ! paratantro¹ 'bhisamvṛtyā syān nāsti paramārthataḥ #

'Whatever exists in empirical truth (samorti) which is imagined (kalpita) does not exist in absolute truth (paramārtha), for one that is dependent (paratantra, for its existence or origination) may exist (only) in empirical truth which is the cause (of existence or origination), and not in absolute truth.'

For the first half of the kārikā see IV. 57a and 58a-b.

1 Here the actual reading in all the editions and MSS. examined is paratantrābhi° and not paratantro'bhi° as given above. The reading in c of the next kārikā (74), too, is paratantrābhi° in all of them excepting the MS. k of the Anandashram edition and the edition of Maheśacandra Pāla, both of which read here paratantro'bhi°. As the sense requires and is supported by Buddhist works, as we shall presently see, the genuine reading here in the kārikā (73) must be paratantro'bhi° (See the discussion in the body). Here abhisamvṛti in this kārikā (73) in meaning is, as appears to me, nothing but abhinispatti samvṛti in kārikā 74. Now abhinispatti samvṛti means samvṛti which is the cause of existence, or appearance of things (abhinispadyate 'nayā). One should therefore read paratantro'bhi° in 73 in accordance with the reading in 74. Otherwise the kārikās cannot properly be explained. One can hardly ollow S who explains paratantrābhisamvṛtyā as parasāstravyavahārena and paratantrābhinispatyā as parasāstrasiddhim apekṣya in 73 and 74 respectively. Whether one can read hi for 'bhi in c of the presant kārikā may also be considered.

It follows from what is said above that a thing is to be regarded as having no origination (aja). Our author, however, says that this assertion can be made only so far as the empirical truth is concerned, but in absolute truth even this is not possible,

for a dependent thing comes into being only in empirical truth:

74

ajah kalpitasamvṛtyā paramārthena nāpyajah l paratantro'bhinispattyā samvṛtyā jāyate tu sah l

'One (held) to be unborn (aja) is so in empirical truth which is imagined, but in absolute truth it is even not unborn; for that which is dependent comes into being in empirical truth, the cause of appearance.'

The words samviti and paratantra in kārikās 73 and 74 are very important and require some explanation. The first of them has, however, already been discussed above (IV. 56, 57) to some extent and the following may be added thereto. In the Mādhyamika system as in the school of Vedānta samviti satya is called also vyavahāra or vyāvahārika ('practical') satya. The two kinds of truth, samviti, or vyavahāra or vyāvahārika and paramārtha are regarded in Buddhism as the means (upāya) and the end (upeya) respectively.

MA, VI. 80 quoted in BAP, p. 372: upāyabhūtam vyavahārasatyam upeyabhūtam paramārthasatyam | See also MK, XXIV. 20:

> vyavahāram anāśritya paramārtho na deśyate | paramārtham anāgamya nirvāṇaṃ nādhigamyate ||

In Pali Buddhism samviti satya is sammuti sacca (Skt. sammati satya) 'truth by general consent'. Poussin writes (JA, 1903, Tome II, p. 302): "vèrite conferme à l'assentiment universel mais erronè" ('truth conformed to universal assent but erroneous'). The literal meaning of the word samviti is that by which (the true nature of a thing) is 'covered' (svabhāvā-

varaṇāt) and it is regarded as truth because it brings to light what is covered (āvṛṭaprakāsanāt). See IV. 57, and BAP on IX. 2 (p. 352). The following may be quoted here from MA, VI. 23 as cited in BAP, p. 361:

samyagmisādaršanalabdhabhāvam rūpadvayam bibhrati sarvabhāvāh | samyagdisām yo visayah sa tattvam misādisām samvitisatyam uktam ||

Now as regards paratanira 'dependent' it has a special significance as evident from Buddhist sources. In Buddhism there are three characteristics (laksana) or natures (soabhāva) of a thing, viz., (i) parikalpita 'imagined'. (ii) paratanira 'dependent', and (iii) parinispanna 'perfect'. Sometimes they are briefly called (i) kalpita, (ii) tantra, and (iii) nispanna respectively. Any object, for instance, an elephant, according to Mādhyamikas or Yogācāras is sūnya or merely a creation of mind, yet we know it as a particular object. This characteristic of it is an imagined one (parikalpita). Now the notion or imagination of the object depends for its being on its cause (or cause and conditions, heiu-pratyaya), and so the characteristic is called paratanira (=pratityasamuipanna). That the object is in fact always devoid of the imagined characteristics referred to above is parinispanna. It is so also because there

MVt<sup>1</sup>, LXXXVII; Tk, 39; TSN, 1:

kalpitah paratantras ca parinispanna eva ca | trayah svabhāvā dhīrāṇām gambhīrajāeyam isyate |

MVST, I. 6:

kalpitah paratantrai ca parinispanna eva ca l

LA, X. 374:

buddhyā vivecyamānam hi na tar tram nāpi kalpitam l nispanno nāsti vai bhāvah katham buddhyā prakalpyate l is perfect invariation or because it is free from any change.<sup>3</sup> They are called 'nature' (svabhāva) owing to such practice of the people though in fact they do not exist.<sup>4</sup> V as u bandhu gives here an example in his TSN, 27, 28: Suppose one creates an elephant by dint of one's spell. There the elephant appears, but there is only the form of the elephant, and in no way the elephant itself. Here the elephant is parikalpita; the form of the elephant is paratantra, and the absence of the elephant is parinispanna.<sup>5</sup>

Of these three lakṣaṇas or svabhāvas<sup>6</sup> the first, parikalpita, may roughly be compared in the system of the Advaita Vedānta of Ś

- <sup>3</sup> Tk, 40: avikāraparinispattyā sa parınispannah; MVBT, p. 19: tasyāsaṃskṛtatvān nirvikāratvena parinispannatvāt.
- 4 Writes Sthiramati in MVBT, p. 19: sa punar dravyato 'sann api vyavahārato 'stīti svabhāva ucyate.
  - 5 māyākṛtaṃ mantravaśāt khyāti hastyātmanā yathā | ākāramātraṃ tatrāsti hastī nāstī tu sarvathā || svabhāvaḥ kalpito hastī paratantras tadākṛtiḥ | yas tatra hastyabhāvo 'sau parinispanna isyate ||

-Cf. MSA, XI, 19:

tadākrtis ca tatrāsti tadbhāvas ca na vidyate |

<sup>6</sup> For easy reference the following may be quoted here:

Tk. p. 39:

yena yena vikalpena yad yad vastu vikalpyate | parikalpita evāsau svabhāvo na sa vidyate || 20

(This is based on LA, p. 163: yat punar uktam bhagavatā yena yena vikalpena ye ye bhāvā vikalpyante na hi sa teṣām svabhāvo bhavati parikalpita evāsau°.)

Sthiramati: ādhyātmikabāhyavikalpyavastubhedena vikalpānām ānantyam pradarsayann āha yenayena vikalpeneti. yad yad vastu vikalpyate.° ādhyātmikam bāhyam vāntaso yāvad buddhadharmā api. parikalpita evāsau svabhāva ity atra kāraņam āha na sa vidyata iti yad vastu vikalpaviṣayas tad yasmāt sattvābhāvān na vidyate tasmād tad vastu parikalpitasvabhāvam eva na hetupratyayapratibaddhasvabhāvam.° parikalpitānantaram paratantrasvabhāvo vaktavya ity ataāha

paratantrasvabhāvas tu vikalpaḥ pratyayodbhavaḥ |

with prātibhāsika satya 'the truth that exists only in appearance'; as for example, mirage, or the appearance of a snake on a piece of string; paratantra with vyāvahārika satya 'the practical truth' (this is called by the Buddhists sāmvṛta 'pertaining to saṃvṛti', or vyavahāra satya), the phenomena in the waking state are its examples; and pariniṣṭanna with pāramārthika satya 'supreme or tanscendental truth', e.g., Brahman of the Vedāntins.

Sthiramati: atra vikalpa iti paratantrasvabhāvam āha. pratyodbhava ity anenāpi paratantrābhidhānar ravittinimittam āha. parair hetupratyayais tantryata utpādyata iti paratantra ity arthaḥ. (As the sense requires the order of the last four words is slightly changed. See MVBT, p. 19: grāhyam grāhakam ca svabhāvatūnyatvād abhūtam apy astīti parikalpyata iti parikalpita ity ucyate. sa punar dravyato 'sann api vyavahārato 'stīti svabhāva ucyate. paratantraḥ paravaso hetupratyaya-pratibaddhajanmakatvāt. p. 20: parair hetupratyayais tantryate janyate na tu svayam bhavatīti paratantraḥ.) svato'nyahetupratyayapratibaddhātmalābha ity uktam bhavatī. uktaḥ paratantraḥ. pariniṣpannaḥ katham ity ata āha

nispannas tasya pūrveņa sadā rahitatā tu yā || 21

(MVBT, p. 19:

kalpitena svabhāvena tasya yātyantaśūnyatā | svabhāvaḥ pariniṣpanno 'vikalpajñānagocaraḥ ||

Vasubandhu says on the point, Op. cit., p. 20: grāhyagrāhakā-bhāvaḥ pariniṣpannaḥ. In TSN, 3 sadā rahitatā of Tk. 21, and atyantaśūnyalā of MVBT referred to above are expressed by sadā 'vidyamānatā.)

Sthiramati: avikāraparinispattyā sa parinispannah, tasyeti paratantrasya pūrveņeti parikalpitena. tasmin vikalpe grāhyagrāhakabhāvah parikalpitah, tathā hi, tasmin vikalpe grāhyagrāhakatvam avidyamānam eva parikalpyata iti parikalpitam ucyate, tena grāhyagrāhakeņa paratantrasyas adā sarvakālam atyanta rahitatā yā sā parinispannasvabhāvah.

According to Buddhists nirodha, nirvāṇa, and ākāśa are the examples of parinispanna.

<sup>7</sup> For a detailed discussion and bibliography and sources, ancient and modern, see ViS, pp. 514-561; TSN; LA, pp. 126, 127, 169, 170, 176, etc.; MSA, Vi. 1, XI. 13, 38-41, XIX. 51, 78, 79; SNS, VI.

It is to be noted that samvṛti consists in parikalpita and paratantra svabhāvas and paramārtha in pariniṣpanna. Thus it is rightly said in the kārikā 73 that paratantra can exist only in practical truth (samvṛti) and not in any way in absolute truth. This is fully explained by Prajñākaramati (in his BAP, pp. 354-355) saying that whatever comes into existence (jāyate) does so being dependent on the entirety of the cause and conditions (hetupratyayasāmagrī), and that which is thus dependent for its existence has no existence in reality, like a shadow on a looking glass. Let the following be quoted here:

api tu hetupratyayasāmagrīm pratītya māyāvad utpadyate. tadvaikalyato nirudhyate ca. hetupratyayasāmagrīm pratītya jātasya parāyattātmalābhasya pratibimbasyeva kutaḥ satsvabhāvatā. na ca kasyacid padārthasya paramērthato hetupratyayasāmagrītaḥ samutpattiḥ sambhavati.

Let us quote also the following few lines:

māyayā nirmitam yac ca hetubhir yac ca nirmitam | āyāti tat kutaḥ kutra yāti ceti nirūpyatām || yad anyasannidhānena dṛṣṭaṃ na tadabhāvataḥ | pratibimbasame tasmin kṛṭrime satyatā kutaḥ ||

BA, IX. 144, 145.

yaḥ pratyayair jāyati sa hy ajāto na tasya utpādu sabhāvato'sti | yaḥ pratyayādhīnu sa śūnya ukto yaḥ śūnyatāṃ jānati so 'pramattaḥ ||

Anvavataptahradāpasamkramaņasūtra quoted in BAP, loc. cit. and MV, p. 239.

The subject under discussion is that nothing originates (etat tad uttamam satyam yatra kiñcin na jāyate, III. 48, IV. 71). It has been shown in establishing it that the notion of origination is only in empirical reality and not in absolute reality in which we cannot assert the existence of even a thing that is without origination. The author now says in the next kārikā

that the notion of origination is due to a strong adherence (abhiniveśa) to the unreal (abhūta) referring hereby to the two (dvaya), i.e., the percipient and the perceptible (grāhya and (grāhaka):

### 75

abhūtābhiniveśo 'sti dvayam tatra na vidyate | dvayābhāvam sa buddhvaiva nirnimitto na jāyate ||

'There is a strong adherence to what has not been (abhūta¹), for the two² are not there. Just when he understands the non-existence of the two it goes beyond the range of its cause and does not come into being.' 3

The cause of origination is abhūtābhiniveśa. When one clearly understands the true nature of the two which have no existence at all that abhiniveśa goes away and consequently the notion of origination does not arise.

Ś explains the word he (saḥ) in the original (c) in the following way: dvayābhāvam buddhvā nirnimitto nivṛttamithyādvayābhiniveśo yaḥ sa na jāyate—'He who having understood the absence of the two is beyond the cause and (thus) whose strong adherence to the two which are false has turned back, is not born.'

This explanation does not appear to be proper when one reads the karikā under discussion with the kārikā IV. 79, where the same phrase (dvayābhāvaṃ sa buddhvaiva, 75) occurs once more with a slight variation (vastvabhāvaṃ for dvayābhāvaṃ), there being no difference of meaning (vastvabhāva = dvayābhāva — S). Let the kārikā be quoted here:

abhūtābhiniveśād dhi sadṛśe tat pravartate | vastvabhāvaṃ sa buddhvaiva nihsaṅgam vinivartate ||

<sup>1</sup> That is, 'unreal,' referring to the two (dvaya) that follows.

The percipient and the perceptible (grāhya-grāhaka), see IV. 72.

<sup>3</sup> See IV. 79.

How is it to be explained? The meaning is simple and clear. It says that it is only owing to one's persistent belief in unreality that it (citta 'mind') goes onward to a similar object (i.e., the mind relates itself to an unreal object), but as soon as one understands the absence of a thing it becomes free from contact and turns back.

But here is a difficulty regarding grammar. In accordance with Pāṇini, III. 4. 21, the agent (kartṛ) of both the verbs buddhvā and vinivartate in the second half of the kārikā must be the same; but the fact is not so, for the agent of the former is saḥ, while that of the latter is tat in the first half.

This anomaly is however found in writings even of such great poets as  $K \bar{a} 1 i d \bar{a} s a$ . He writes in his Raghuvamśa, 1.77:

matprasūtim anārādhya prajeti tvām śaśāpa sā 14

In defence of Pāṇini, or in other words, to meet the difficulty arising from his rule later grammarians say that such words as *sthita* and the like are to be understood in such cases, so that there may be the same agent of the verbs used.<sup>5</sup>

The use of the gerund in the Vedic language in this respect is not so strict as in the classical Sanskrit that follows Pā n i n i. See the following sentences in which the verbs have different agents: striyam dṛṣṭāya kitavam tatāpa 'having seen

- 4 Mallinātha attempts to explain it away taking anārādhya in the causative sense (asevayitvā). Similar instances are many:
  - (i) yaj jñātvā neha bhūyo 'nyaj jñātavyam avasiṣyate | BG, VII. 2.
  - tii) tac ca saṃsmṛtya saṃsmṛtya rūpam atyadbhutaṃ hareḥ l vismayo me mahān rājan hṛṣyāmi ca muhurmuhuḥ || BG, XVIII 77.
- (iii) mṛtaṃ dṛṣṭvā duḥkhaṃ bhəvati, (iv) priyaṃ dṛṣṭvā sukhaṃ syāt, sukham utpadyate, etc.
- <sup>5</sup> See Saṃkṣiptasāra with Vṛtti and Ṭīkā ed., Śyāmācaraṇa Kaviratna, Calcutta, 1318, B.S., Kṛdantapāda, 407; Mugdhabodha, ed., Subalacandra Mitra, Calcutta, 1316, B.S., Sūtra, 1116; Kalāpavyākaraṇa with commentaries ed. Gurunātha Vidyānidhi Bhaṭṭācāryya, Calcutta, 1835 Śaka, Kṛdvṛtti, Sūtra 433.

a woman (it) pains a gambler' (RV, X. 34. 11). Similar uses are found also in the Brāhmaṇas. The following is from the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa: te paśava oṣadhīr jagdhvā apaḥ pītvā tata eṣa rasaḥ saṃ bhavati 'the beasts having eaten the plants and drunk water—then the vital sap arises.'

Following this the line under discussion (IV. 79) would be explained by a grammarian thus: sa (yadā) vastvabhāvam buddhvaiva (bhavati tadā) tan niḥsaṅgam vinivartate,—'just when he understands the absence of things it (mind) turns back being free from relation'. Now in the kārikā (79) the word sa(ḥ) must refer to one (understood) whose abhūtābhiniveśa is stated.

In the same way, I think, the kārikā 75, too, should be explained: It is the *abhūtābhiniveśa* itself and not the person whose *abhūtābhiniveśa* is alluded to, that does not arise (jāyate).<sup>6</sup>

Naturally one has a persistent belief in the abhūta or unreal things, i.e., the percipient and the perceptible which have, in fact, no existence at all. So when one clearly understands their non-existence there is no room for that persistent belief to come into being.

Now, as regards abhūtābhiniveśa compare abhūtaparikalpa of the Buddhists. We read the following in the LA, pp. 149-150:

abhūtaparikalpa 'bhūtaparikalpa iti bhagavann ucyate. katamasyaitad bhagavan dharmasyādhivacanatıı yad utābhūtaparikalpa iti kim vā prativikalpayann abhūtaparikalpo bhavati. bhagavān āha sādhu sādhu mahāmate° nṛṇām grāhyagrāhakābhiniveśābhiniviṣṭānām ca° bāhyavicitrārthopalambhābhiniveśāc cittacaittakalāpo vikalpasaṃśabditaḥ pravartamānaḥ pravartata ātmātmīyābhiniveśāt.

<sup>6</sup> Or one may take here nimitation na jäyate with reference to yo'sti kalpita\* (IV. 73) and it may be explained saying that which is or originates in the empirical truth does not do so when one has no notion of the two (grāhya and grāhaka), there being no cause (nimita) for origination.

The abhūtābhiniveśa in our work (IV. 75, 79) is, in fact abhūta-parikalpa of the Yogācāras. See the following line is the Madhyāntavibhanga (I.  $2^{a-b}$ ) of Maitreyanātha:

abhūtaparikalpo 'sti dvayam tatra na vidyate | 7

From this it is perfectly clear that the first half of our kārik under discussion is in reality taken from Maitreyanātha

The word nimitta in nimitta 'devoid of nimitta' has special sense in Buddhist literature. There is a very common phrase: na nimittagrāhī bhavati, Pali 'ggāhī hoti, DSn, § 1345-6. It means that when a nimitta 'specific appearance' of a thing is grasped in the way such as a male, a female pleasant, etc., a man is entangled in various worldly troubles and so it is advised that he should not be a nimittagrāhī 'grasper of nimittas.' As the specific appearances are the causes of attachment, aversion, and delusion (rāga, dveṣa, an moha) they are called nimittas. See AS, p. 400.

This special meaning seems not to have been intended in the present case. We may take the word here as well as in IV. 7 and 78 in the sense of 'objective cause' which is expressed by the word artha in IV. 24.

Having said as to how that persistent belief disappears, th author proceeds to discuss in the following kārikās how th non-origination (anutpatti) of mind is effected which is to b realized:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> MVBT, pp. 9 ff. On b of the kārikā Sthiramati writes: svātmar avidyamānena grāhyagrāhakākāreņa prakhyāte [na vyaktam bhrāntirūpatvam].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> AKV as quoted in DS, p 41: nimittam vastuno 'vasthāvišeso nīlatvādiļ Tr., p. 21, l. 3: nimittam tad- (referring to viṣaya) višeso nīlapītādyālambana vyavasthākaranam. See AS, pp. 291, 308.

<sup>9</sup> AS, p. 400: itthipurisanimittam vä subhanimittädikam vä kilesavatthubhüta nimittam.

76

yadā na labhate hetūn uttamādhamamadhyamān tadā na jāyate cittam hetvabhāve phalam kutah t

'When the mind does not have any cause, superior, inferior, or middle, it does not originate; for how is there the effect in the absence of the cause?'

Here hetu is nothing but nimitta in the preceding kārikā. See IV. 77-78.

#### 77

animittasya cittasya yānutpattiḥ samādvayā I ajātasyaiva sarvasya cittadṛśyaṃ hi tad yataḥ #

This kārikā seems to have been handed down defectively. For, evidently in the first half the sentence is not complete, as the conjunctive pronoun yad (in feminine yā) requires the pronoun tad in feminine (in any case-ending), but it is not to be found in either of the two halves. Nor is there the antecedent of tad in the second half which clearly shows to have supported something stated before. But what is it? The explanation of S appears to be far-fetched and far from satisfactory, nor has he explained the word tad which has altogether been overlooked. It seems to me, therefore, that the above two lines are taken by mistake from two different kārikās of which the other two lines are lost. I leave the present kārikā, as it is before us, untranslated, as it does not give any complete sense, so far as I can understand. The first half may, however, be explained thus:

The non-origination (anutpatti) of the causeless (animitta)<sup>1</sup> mind (citta) is the same (samā, i.e., unconditioned—always in the same condition) and free from the two (advaya, i.e.,

free from the notion of the grāhya 'receptible', and the grāhak 'recipient').

See kārikā IV. 80. For the word sama or sāmya see III. 2, 38 IV. 80, 93, 95, 100 with the author's explanation; and MuU, II 1.3. cf. BG, V. 19: nirdoṣaṃ hi samaṃ brahma. See MV, pr 374-75: mañjuśrīr āha. paramārthataḥ sarvadharmānutpāda samatayā parmārthataḥ sarvadharmāḥ.

For cittadrsya in the second half see III. 31, IV. 28, 36.

#### 78

buddhvā 'nimittatām satyām hetum pṛthag anāpnuvat' ! vītasokam tadā 'kāmam abhayam padam asnute !!

'When one understands its 2 true state of causelessness it (citta) does not have any other cause, 4 and as such reache then a position 5 which is free from sorrow, desire, and fear.'

I read with MS. D<sup>2</sup> anāpnuvat for anāpnuvan in editior and other MSS., construing it with citta referred to in the preceding kārikā (77). It is to be noted that it is citta that referred to in kārikās IV. 76-80. In kārikā 79 the pronoun ta refers to citta, as says Ś, too, expressly. One may naturall expect to have its mention or reference also in the preser kārikā. To introduce a person who reaches the position is rather abrupt. It is also to be considered that it is citta and not the person that is concerned with the cause or causes (IV. 76).

In this case the grammatical difficulty is to be removed as it IV. 75.

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<sup>1</sup> See the Variants.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> That is, of the citta 'mind.' See IV. 25, 26, 27, 75, 77.

<sup>7</sup> That is, the state of being without the objective cause.

<sup>4</sup> See IV. 76.

<sup>5</sup> pada=sthiti, IV. 80.

Accepting the reading anāpnuvan the kārikā may be translated thus:

'Having understood the true state of the causelessness and having no other cause one reaches then a position free from sorrow, desire and fear.'

#### 79

abhūtābhiniveśād dhi sadṛśe tat pravartate I vastvabhāvam sa buddhvaiva nihsaṅgam vinivartate I

'Owing to a persistent belief in what is non-existent it goes onwards to a similar object, but as soon as one understands the absence of a thing it turns back being free from relativity.'

The word sadisa means what is thought to be similar to one in which one has strong or persistent belief. niḥsaṅga means one beyond the reach of any connection with the object.

For c one is referred to IV. 75. See III. 45; IV. 72, 75, 96, 99.

# 80

nivṛttasyāpravṛttasya niścalā hi tadā sthitiḥ l viṣayaḥ sa hi buddhānām tat sāmyam ajam advayam l

'At that time when (the citta) has turned back from and does not go (again) onwards to (its object), its position is firm (i.e., unwavering in the least). That is the field of activity of the Buddhas, and that is the same, unborn, and free from the two.'

- 1 Cf. III. 34: pracāraḥ sa tu vijneyaḥ.
- <sup>2</sup> See III. 2, 38. See also Vch, p. 41: api tu khalu punaḥ subhūte samaḥ sa dharmo na tatra kaścid viṣamaḥ. tenocyate 'nuttarasamyaksambodhiḥ. nirātmatvena niḥsattvatvena nirjīvatvena niṣpudgalatvena samā sānuttarā samyaksambodhih.
  - 3 The perceptible and the percipient (grāhya and grāhaka).

In c viṣaya may be taken in the sense of the object of knowledge.

See III. 46 and IV. 77 from which it will be evident that this state is the *summum bonum* of both the Buddhists and the Vedāntists, which they call *nirodha* or *nirvāṇa* and *brahman* respectively. The Vedāntist commentator, S, writes here very clearly that this state of mind is *brahman*:

cittasya niścalā calanavarjitā brahmasvarūpaiva tadā sthitir yaiṣā brahmasvarūpā sthitiś cittasyādvayavijñānaikarasaghanalakṣanā.

And again on IV. 77 he says:

animittasya cittasyeti yā mokṣākhyānutpattiḥ.4

That this state of citta is the field of activity of the Buddhas is clearly said in Buddhist works:

cittamātram nirābhāsam vihāro buddhabhūmi ca | etad dhi bhāṣitam buddhair bhāṣante bhāṣayanti ca || LA. X. 105.

arthābhāse ca vijñāne jñānam tathatāgocaram |
parāvṛttam nirābhāsam āryāṇām gocaro hy asau ||

Op. Cit., X, 148.

This state is the same as what we know from such lines as the following from Buddhist works: vijñaptimātratāyām cittam avasthitam bhavati. Tk., p. 43.

For the wording of c (viṣayaḥ sa hi buddhānāṃ) see CŚ, p. 497: viṣayaḥ sa hi buddhānāṃ; Vk. p. 6: yo buddhānāṃ viṣayaḥ; p. 11: buddhagocaraḥ; SŚP, p. 120, \*5a: yatpramāṇo buddhaviṣayaḥ; MSA, XX-XXI. 26: buddhānāṃ viṣayād api; LA, III. 80: āryāṇāṃ gocaro yathā.

See cittam pravartate citram cittam eva vimucyate | cittam hi jāyate nānyac cittam eva nirudhyate | Op. Cit., X. 145,

This state of mind to which the Buddhas aspire is further described in the following kārikā:

81

ajam anidram asvapnam prabhātam bhavati svayam t sakṛd vibhāti hy evaiṣa dharmo dhātuḥ svabhāvataḥ li

See III, 36.

'It shines forth itself having no origination, nor sleep, nor dream. Indeed, this object (dharma), the fundamental element (dhātu), is naturally illumined once for all.'

The word dharma in the second half of the kārikā may be taken in its general sense, an element of existence, an object, thing. But considering the views of the Yogācāras, and specially what Vasubandhu and his commentator Sthiramati have said in describing this state of mind it is to be taken in the sense of a special kind of dharma, i.e., āśrayaparāvṛtti 'revolution or change of the recipient (i.e., ālayavijāāna which is the seed of all, sarvabījaka).'2

A few words are here required with regard to the reading dharmo dhātuḥ svabhāvataḥ. This reading is found in some of

<sup>1</sup> See Tk, pp. 43-44: yadaivam vijnaptimatratāyam cittam avasthitam bhavati tadā katham vyapadišyata ity āha:

acitto 'nupalambho 'sau jūānam lokottaram ca tat |
āśrayasya parāvṛttir dvidhā dauṣṭhulyahānitaḥ || 29
sa evānāsravo dhātur anityaḥ kuśalo dhruvaḥ |
sukho vimuktikāyo 'sau dharmākhyo 'yam mahāmuneḥ || 30

<sup>2</sup> For parāvṛtti in āśrayaparāvṛtti we have sometimes parivṛtti or parivartana (Tib. gnas. gyur. pa, or gnas. yons. gyur. pa, or gshan. du. gyur. pa. See Tib. translation of Tk, Tanjur, Mdo, Śi, Fol. 190a). For āśrayaparāvṛtti see among others Tk, loc. cit.; MSA, XIX. 54; LA, p. 338; DB, App. p. 27,pp. 190ff.: tasya tathā paribhāvitaṃ tal laukikaṃ pariśuddhaṃ dhyānaṃ āpāyikakleśapakṣyaṃ duṣṭhulyam āśrayād apakarṣati. acireṇa tasya prahānād āśrayo'sya bodhisattvasya parivartate pāpakasyāpāyikasya karmano 'tyantam akaraṇatāyai apāyāgamanatāyai ca. For its different explanation see ViS, pp. 609-612.

the MSS. of the Anandashram edition and in some others, too, examined by me, while others read dharmo dhātusva°. S accepts the latter and Ā n a n d a g i r i supports it sayin dhātusvabhāvata ity ekam padam gṛhītvā vyācaṣṭe. This implies that the reading dhātuḥ sva° was also known to him. But neither of them seems to be very satisfactory and this leads the present writer to amend the reading as dharmadhātuḥ svabhāvataḥ. The reading dharmo dhātuḥ appears to be due to the unfamiliarity of the commentators with the significance of the word dharmadhātu which is quite appropriate here. Let us therefore explain the kārikā in this light.

In accordance with this reading the second half may be translated thus:

'Indeed the essence of reality (dharmadhātu)<sup>3</sup> is naturally illumined once for all.'

See 1. 14, 16; III. 36, 37. For c see ChU, VIII. 4. 1-2 which is the same. See also NUU, 9; MkU, 2-23.

We take the next three kārikās together. The kārikā 82 is incomplete and as such should be construed with 83.

3 The word dharmadhātu may be translated by 'the essence of reality.' It is devoid of the characteristics of subject and object (viyukto grāhyagrāhakalakṣanena) or undifferentiated into subject and object (grāhyagrāhakarahita). It is a synonym for paramārtha or paramārthatatīva, MVt, § XCIX. 8; Tk, p. 41, l. 26; BAP, p. 354: parama uttamo 'rthaḥ. akṛtrimaṃ vasturūpaṃ yadadhigamāt sarvāvṛtivāsanānusandhiklesaprahāṇaṃ bhavati. sarvadharmāṇāṃ niḥsvabhāvatā sūnyatā tathatā bhūtakoṭiḥ dharmadhātur ityādiparyāyāḥ. Again, p. 421: bodhir buddhatvam ekānekasvabhāvaviviktam anutpannāniruddham anucchedam asāsvataṃ sarvaprapaūcavinirmuktam ākāsapratisamaṃ dharmakāyākhyaṃ paramārthatattvam ucyate. etad eva ca prajūāpāramitāsūnyatā-tathatā-bhūtakoti-dharmadhātvādisabdena samvrtim upādāyābhidhīvate

Writes Maitreyanātha 'MVBT, 1 p. 41):

tathatā bhūtakoṭiś cānimittaḥ pa[ramārthakaḥ] | dharmadhātuś ca paryāyāḥ śūnyatāyāḥ samāsataḥ !! ananyathāviparyāsatannirodhāryagocaraiḥ |

hetutvāc cāryadharmāṇāṃ paryāyārtho yathākramaṃ 🖟 1. 15-16.

As regards dharmadhātu V as u bandhu says here (pp. 41-42). āryadharmahetutvād dharmadhātuḥ. āryadharmāṇāṃ tadālambanaprabhavatvād. hetvartho hy atra dhātvarthaḥ (see Tk, p. 44, ll. 20, 21). On the last words 82

sukham ävriyate nityam duḥkham vivriyate sadā I yasya kasya ca dharmasya grahena bhagavān asau II

83

asti nāsty asti nāstīti nāstīti vā punaḥ ! calasthirobhayābhāvair āvmoty eva bāliśaḥ ||

84

koṭyaś catasra etās tu grahair yāsāṃ sadāvṛtaḥ l bhagavān ābhir aspṛṣṭo yena dṛṣṭaḥ sa sarvadṛk 🏾

'It is the adherence to (an idea of) a thing—whatsoever it may be, by which bliss is constantly covered and misery is unfolded. The glorious one (dharmadhātu)—

(i) is, (ii) is not, (iii) is and is not (i.e., both), or (iv) neither is nor is not (i.e., not both)—with these (notions) the childish obscure it (respectively in accordance with their own ideas of its being) (i) steady, (ii) unsteady, (iii) both, and (iv) the absence (of both).

Sthiramati comments: svalakṣaṇopādāyarūpadhāraṇo 'py ayaṃ dhātuśabdo vartata ity āha hetvartho'. The word dhātu also means one that supports its own particularity (svalakṣaṇa) and the secondary qualities of matter (upādāya or bhautika rūpa), including evidently, as observes Stcherbatsky (MVD, p. 050) also the primary qualities of matter (mahābhūta). Dharmadhātu also means the mental state considered as element (dhātu) owing to its ultimate reality. See Pali Text Society's Dictionary, s.v. dhamma; Compendium of Philosophy, pp. 254-255.

- 1 This adherence is mainly four-fold as shown in the next kārikā.
- In explaining calasthira° in c of 83 sthira is to be taken first as required by the sense (arthakrama) even discarding the order of reading (pathakrama).
  - 3 That is, permanent.
  - 4 That is, steady and unsteady.
  - 5 That is, neither steady nor unsteady.

These are the four points by the adherence to which the glorious one is always covered, but (in fact) it is not touched by them. One who realizes it is omniscient.'

In nāsti nāstīti vā in c of kārīkā 83 take the first na with both asti and nāsti, as na asti and na nāsti.

These four points are maintained by four classes of disputants according to their ideas of the Absolute, as it is permanent, not permanent, both, or not both. But some of the Buddhists (Vijñanavādins and Mādhyamikas) do not subscribe to any one of these views, their point is quite free from all of them, while in the Vedānta the first point is avowedly held; e.g., KU, VI, 12 and 13:

astīti bruvato 'nyatra katham tad upalabhyate | astīty evopalabdhavyaḥ |

TU. II. 6. 1:

asti brahmeti ced veda santam enam tato viduḥ | MU. IV. 4:

asti brahmeti brahmavidyāvid abravīt.

As regards the position of the Buddhists it is also very clear:

na san nāsan na sadasan na cāpy anubhayātmakam | catuṣkoṭivinirmuktam tattvam mādhyamikā viduḥ || S a r a h a in SS, fol. 17.6

kāraņaih pratyayaiś cāpi yeṣām lokah pravartate | cātuṣkoṭikayā yuktā na te mannayakovidāḥ || LA, III. 20.

punar aparam mahāmate bālapṛthagjanā anādikālaprapañcadauṣṭhulyasvaprativikalpanā nāṭake nṛtyantaḥ svasiddhāntanayadeśanāyām akuśalāḥ svacittadṛśyabāhyabhāvalakṣaṇābhiniviṣṭā

<sup>6</sup> See Museon, 1903, IV, p. 389. This kārikā is widely quoted: JS, 28; SDS, Bauddhadarsana; SSS, III. 7 (with the reading na cobhābhyām vilakṣaṇaṃ in c); catuṣkoṭivinirmuktam sūnyam tattvam iti sthitam—Ibid, 9; BAP, p. 359; SāS, 1. 44 (Vijāānabhis, u); Cf. BJS, II. 27 (=DN I, 27),

upāyadeśanāpāṭham abhiniviśante na svasiddhāntanayaṃ cātuṣkoṭikanayaviśuddhaṃ prativibhāvayanti. LA, p. 171.

yac ca mahāmate na kāryam na kāranam tan na san nāsad yac ca na san nāsat tac cātuṣkoṭikabāhyam cātuṣkoṭikam ca mahāmate lokavyavahārah. *Op. cit*, p. 188.7

Cf. punar aparam mahāmate catuṣṭayavinirmuktā tathāgatānām dharmadeśanā yad utaikatvānyatvobhayanubhayavivarjitā nāstyastisamāropāpavādavinirmuktā satyapratītyasamutpādanirodhamārgavimokṣapravṛttipūrvakā mahāmate tathāgatānām dharmadeśanā. Op. cit., p. 96.

It is to be noted here that according to S the word bhagavat 'the glorious one' in 82d and 84c refers to ātman. On the following grounds, however, I think, it is the dharmadhātu in 81c, which is alluded to.

The subject matter here in kārikās 80-84 is the unwavering or the firm state of the mind which has turned back from and does not go onwards again to its object—the state which is dharmadhātu and to which aspire the Buddhas. This is further dealt with in the following two kārikās (85-86). There is, therefore, no room for ātman to which the word bhagavat may refer.

An objection may be raised here that the word bhagavat is used with reference to a conscious or sentient being, and as such it cannot refer to dharmadhātu which is nothing but the niścalā sthiti of the mind. One can, however, meet it in the following way. Such common phrases as bhagavatī śrutiḥ, bhagavān vedaḥ, bhagavatī bhavitavyatā, etc., will show that the word under discussion is employed also to non-sentient

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Sometimes instead of the four points (catuskoți) referred to there are only first three excluding the last. See MK, I. 7, VII. 20; CŚ, XVI. 25; LA, p. 156. Sometimes only the first two are mentioned. See my paper, Catuskoți, in the Jhā Commemoration Volume, 1937, pp. 85 ff. where similar passages are quoted from Vedantic texts.

beings. It is found that anything, irrespective of its being sentient or otherwise, that is powerful or commands respect, regard, faith, confidence, or reverence may be referred to by bhagavat.

It is also to be taken into consideration that this dharmadhātu is in fact Brahman of the Vedāntists as shown in the clearest possible words by the author himself in III. 46 which we have already discussed. Again, the dharmadhātu is the same as what we understand by the word prajñāpāramitā. And it is very well-known that prajñāpāramitā is reverently mentioned with the epithet bhagavatī. Besides, this dharmadhātu which is the same as prajñāpāramitā is nothing but advaya jñāna, i.e., the jñāna which is free from the subject and the object, and this is identified with Tathāgata as is evident from the following couplet from the PAS of Dinnāga as guoted by Haribhadra in his AAA, p. 28.8

prajñāpāramitā jñānam advayaṃ sa tathāgataḥ | sādhyā tādarthyayogena tācchabdyaṃ granthamārgayoḥ ||

The first half of this kārikā is based on such old texts as the following:

cittamātrāvatareņa prajñā tāthāgatī matā | LA, III. 43.

See *Ibid.*, pp. 187-190 ending with yat sarvaprapañcātītam sa tathāgatah. See also pp. 191 ff.<sup>9</sup>

- 7 See BAP, p. 421: etad eva ca prajñāpāramitā-śūnyatā-tathatā° ādiśabdena° abhidhīyate. This passage is quoted once more. See IV. 81, note 3, p. 189.
  - <sup>8</sup> See E. Obermiller: DPP, pp. 7, 45; SS, p. 14.
- 9 Let us quote here another passage which is very significant, though a little lengthy, from the same work, i.e., LA, pp. 191-193:

na hi mahāmate abhāvas tathāgatagato° kintu mahāmate manomayadharmakāyasya tathāgatasyaitad adhivacanam yatra (yat?) sarvatīrthakaraśrāvakapratyekabuddhasaptabhūmipratiṣṭhitānām aviṣayaḥ. so(yo?) 'nutpādas tathāgatasyaitan mahāmate paryāyavacanam. tad yathā mahāmate indraḥ śakraḥ purandaraḥ hastaḥ karaḥ pāṇis tanur deham śarīram pṛthivī bhūmir vasundharā kham ākāśam gaganam ity evamādyānām bhāvānām ekaikasya bhāvasya bahavaḥ tathatākāreņa tathāgatam paśyāmy avikalpākāreņānupalambhayogena. evam anutpādākāreņa tathāgatam paśyāmi, yāvad abhāvākāreņa tathāgatam paśyāmi.° SSP, p. 119.

For Tathāgata see also MK, XXII.

No objection can therefore be raised here with regard to the use of the word bhagavat.

paryöyaväcakäh sahdä bhavanti vikalpitä na caişām nāmabahutvād bhāvabahutvam vikalpyate na ca svabhāvo na bhavati, evam mahāmate aham api sahāyām lokadhātau tribhir nāmāsamkhyeyasatasahasrair būlānām sravaņāvabhāsam āgacchāmi tais cābhilapanti mām na ca prajūnanti tathāgatasyaite nāmaparyāyā iti. tatra kecin mahāmate tathāgatam iti mām prajūnanti, kecit svayambhuvam iti nāyakam vināyakam pariņāyakam buddham raim viņabham brahmaṇam (v l. brāhmaṇam, brahmāṇam?) viṣṇum īsvaram pradhānam kapilam bhūtāntam ariṣṭam neminam (ariṣṭaneminam?) somam bhāskaram rāmam vyāsam sukam indram balim varuṇam iti caike samjānanti. apare 'nirodhānutpādam sūnyatām tathatām bhūtatām bhūtakoṭim dharmadhātum nirvāṇam nityam samatām advayam anirodham animittam pratyayam buddhahetūpadesam vimokṣam mārgasatyāni sarvajām jinam manomayam iti caike samjānanti, evamādibhir mahāmate° mām janāh samjānanta udakacandra ivāpraviṣṭanirgatam, na ca bālā avabudhyante dvayāntapatitayā santatyā.

It is said in the preceding kārikā that one, who realizes that truth, becomes omniscient. The present kārikā tells us that omniscience being realized, there is nothing that can be desired, for every desire is fulfilled thereby:

85

prāpya sarvajñatām kṛtsnām brāhmanyam padam advayam tanāpannādimadhyāntam kim atah param īhate 1

'Having realized the full omniscience and (thereby) that state which is befitting a Brāhmaṇa,1 and free from the

1 In Buddhist literature a Brahmana is held in as much respect as a Sramana, and this is evident from the well-known phrase framana-brahmana which is so frequently used. See DP, XXVI. Sometimes a true Brahmana is regarded as, or identified with a Buddha;

١

two,<sup>2</sup> and has no beginning, middle and end, what may one desire beyond it?'

It is to be noted that the final aim is described here to be the realization of omniscience (sarvajñatā, cf. sarvākārajñatā or bodhi) which can be asserted more preferably from the Buddhist point of view than from the Vedāntist.

usabham pavaram vīram mahesim vijitāvinam |
anejam nahātakam buddham tam aham brūmi brāhmaṇam ||
Op. cit., XXVI. 40.

It may be noted that according to Buddhists a Brāhmaṇa is so called because he is vāhitapāpa 'one whose sin is removed' (Op. cit., XXVI. 6). This is, however, far-fetched. The following may be quoted here:

ye ca vāhitapāpatvād brāhmaṇāḥ pāramārthikāḥ |
abhyastāmalanairātmyās te muner eva śāsane ||
ihaiva śramaṇas tena caturdhā parikīrttyate |
śūnyāḥ parapravādā hi śramaṇair brāhmaṇais tathā || TS, 3589, 3590.

K a m a l a śīla writes on it in his Pañjikā: ata eva bhagavatoktam ihaiva śramaṇaḥ ihaiva brāhmaṇaḥ śūnyāḥ parapravādāḥ śramaṇair brāhmaṇair iti.

<sup>2</sup> The subject and the object.

The following kārikā says that this realization of omniscience is the object of vinaya 'discipline' and real sama 'quiescence' and dama 'introversion' of the senses.

86

viprāṇām vinayo hy eṣa śamaḥ prākṛta ucyate l damaḥ prakṛtidāntatvād evam vidvāñ śamam vrajet l

'This is, indeed, the discipline of the wise, and is said to be the natural quiescence, and the introversion (of the senses) owing to (their) being naturally introverted. Knowing thus one should become quiescent.'

The reality set forth in the preceding kārikās (IV. 80-86) is further described in the next three kārikās showing that that is the lokottara 'supra-mundane' knowledge through the realization of which one becomes omniscient:

# 87,88

savastu sopalambham ca dvayam laukikam işyate l avastu sopalambham ca śuddham laukikam işyate l

avastv anupalambham ca lokottaram iti smṛtam l jñānam jñeyam ca vijñeyam sadā buddhaiḥ prakīrttitam l

'That which consists of the two, the object and (its) perception, is regarded as mundane; one without the object, but with the perception is regarded as pure mundane; while one without the object and the perception is said to be supra-mundane.—This is to be understood to be the knowledge and the knowable as is always declared by the Buddhas.'

In our ordinary experience when one perceives a jar there are both the object, the jar, and its perception. This knowledge is called laukika 'mundane', i.e., belonging to or occurring in ordinary life. When one, however, in a higher grade of wisdom, with the clear knowledge of unreality or the imagined or imposed form of the jar, perceives it, that knowledge is with perception, but not with the object. This is called 'pure mundane', i.e., it belongs to ordinary life and is covered (āvṛta); it is pure,—'pure' because it is not so obscure as the mundane, its obscurity having been removed to a great extent. Finally when the reality is perfectly realized, when the mind rests on itself being completely suppressed (niruddha) there is neither the jar, nor the perception, and as such this knowledge is regarded as lokottara 'supra-mundane,' surpassing the ordinary life.

Of these three kinds of jāāna, viz., (i) laukika, (ii) śuddha laukika, and (iii) lokottara, the first is well-known to all and

<sup>1</sup> We have already (IV. 1) seen that there is no difference between jāāna and jāeya. Or it may mean that whatever we may know by the terms jāāna and jāeya is only the three things mentioned in the kārikās.

is met with in every system; and the last two are to be found in Yogācāra texts. For instance, MVI'1, p. 19:

paratantrasvabhāvo hi śuddhalaukikagocarah

Tk, p. 40: nirvikalpalokottarajñānadṛśye pariniṣpanne svabhāve adṛṣṭe apratividdhe asākṣātkṛte tatpṛṣṭhalabdhaśuddhalaukikajñānagamyatvāt paratantro 'nyena jñānena na gṛhyate. na punar lokottarajñānapṛṣṭhalabdhenāpi jñānena na dṛśyate.

In LA, p. 156, these jñānas are found as (i) laukika, (ii) lokottara, and (iii) lokottaratama respectively. The difference is only in nomenclature and as such is not important, The LA, p. 157, describes them very clearly in the following words which deserve here to be considered carefully:

- (i) tatra laukikam jñānam sadasatpakṣābhiniviṣṭānām sarvatīrthakarabālapṛthagjanānām ca.
- (ii) tatra lokottaram jõänam sarvasravakapratyekabuddhänäm svasamanyalaksanapatitäsayäbhinivistanäm.
- (iii) tatra lokottaratamam jõänam buddhabodhisattvänäm niräbhäsadharmapravicayäd anirodhänutpädadarsanät sadasatpakṣavigatam tathägatabhūminairätmyädhigamät pravartate.<sup>2</sup>

This reality with which we are concerned here is described by Vasubandhu in his Tk, verse 29 in the following words which may be quoted here:

acitto 'nupalambho 'sau jñānam lokottaram ca tat |

#### Sthiramati comments:

tad anena slokadvayena darsanamārgam ārabhyottaravisesagatyā phalasampattir udbhāvitā vijnaptimātrapravistayoginah. tatra grāhakacittābhāvād grāhyārthānupalambhāc ca acitto

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Generally in Buddhist works things are divided into two categories, (i) laukika, and (ii) lokottara (see MV, p. 501); as for instance, all mental states are laukika excepting only nine, viz, four paths (maggas), four fruits (maggaphalas), and one uncompounded element (asaṃkhatadhātu), i.e., nibbāna,—these are lokottara. DSn, § 1093, 1094.

'nupalambho 'sau. aparicitatvāt' loke samudācārābhāvāt nirvikalpatvāc ca lokād uttīrņam iti jīīānam lokottaram ca tat.

So far as goes my information, such division of jñāna or jñeya is not to be found in Upaniṣads.

- Ś explains the above three kinds of jāāna as the conditions of (i) waking, (ii) dream, and (iii) sleep respectively (jāgrat, svapna, suṣupti).
- <sup>3</sup> The printed text reads anucitatvāt, but it does not give any appropriate sense. We should, therefore, read here aparicitatvāt with the Tibetan version which has hdris.par.ma.byas.pa.

#### 89

jñāne ca trividhe jñeye krameņa vidite svayam I sarvajñatā hi sarvatra bhavatīha mahādhiyaḥ II

'The threefold knowledge and knowable being gradually understood everywhere spontaneously evolves here the state of omniscience of a man of high intellect.'

That the jāāna is trividha 'threefold' is just now seen in the preceding two kārikās. According to its function, too, it is trividha. We read in the LA, p. 157:

tatra trividham jūānam svasāmānyalakṣaṇāvadhārakam cotpādavyayāvadhāraṇakaṇ cānutpādānirodhāvadhārakam ca.²

The omniscience (sarvajñata) referred to is Buddhahood (buddhatva).3

- <sup>1</sup> The word mahādhī is nothing but dhīmat which is a name for a Bodhisattva. See MSA, XIX. 73; MVt, 1 627.
- <sup>2</sup> As regards the nature of jñāna the following may be cited from LA, p. 157: asangalakṣaṇaṃ jñānam.° asangasvabhāvalakṣaṇaṃ jñānam svapratyātmāryajñānagatigocaram apraveśānirgamatvād udakacandravaj jale.
- <sup>3</sup> See BAP, pp. 447-8; ASP, pp. 42-3. Buddhatva = sarvajñatva consisting in (i) sarvākārajñutā, (ii) mārgajñatā, and (iii) vastujñāna.

Š explains sarvajūatā as sarvaš cāsau jūaš ceti sarvajūah. tasya bhāvah sarvajūatā.

In the next kārikā the author tells his followers to understand certain things:

90

heyajñeyāpyapākyāni vijñeyāny agrayānataḥ¹ l tesām anyatra vijñeyād upalambhas trisu smrtah ll

'That which is to be abandoned, that which is to be known, that which is to be attained, and that which is to be matured are to be understood from the Agrayana. It is said that among them there is perception of the three, but not of that which is to be known.'

The Agrayana in the text is nothing but the Mahayana. as is evident from a number of Buddhist works in which the word occurs as a synonym for Mahayana.<sup>2</sup>

Now, what are we to understand by heya, etc.? As regards heya and jñeya, if we follow here Asanga. they are paratantra and parikalpita svabhāvas (see IV. 74-75) respectively.  $\bar{A}$  pya (= $pr\bar{a}pya$ ) 'attainable' implies dharma

- <sup>1</sup> All the editions and MSS examined have  $^{\circ}y\bar{a}na$  instead of  $^{\circ}y\bar{a}na$  as expected.
- <sup>2</sup> MSA, p. 53: piṭakatrayam sūtravinayābhidharmāh. tad eva trayam hinayānāgrayānabhedena dvayam bhavati. See SP, III. 1, V. 61; MSA, p. 83; SRS (Rajendralal Mitra's Buddhist Manuscripts from Nepal), p. 229; LV, p. 408; VCh., pp. 30, 33. Sometimes it is also called Śreṣṭhayāna, Vch., p. 30.
- 3 Let us quote here the following from the MSA. XI, 13 (p. 58): where heya and jñeya are explained:

tattvam yat satatam dvayena rahitam bhrāntes ca samnisrayah sakyam naiva ca sarvathābhilapitum yac cāprapañcātmakam s jūeyam heyam atho visodhyam amalam yac ca prakṛtyāmalam yasyākāsasuvamavārisadṛsī klesād visuddhir matā dhātu or dharmadhātu already alluded to (IV. 81),4 which is parinispanna, and pākya 'to be matured' refers to the act of maturing by discipline for the attainment of the Absolute. The last is not only for others, but also for one's own self.<sup>5</sup>

The second half of the kārikā says that among these four things only three, i.e., heya, āpya, and pākya, can be perceived, but not the jñeya or vijñeya. For it is parikalpita 'imagined,' and a thing which is only imagined owing to its very nature cannot be perceived, just like mirage, as it

satatam dvayena rahitam tattvam parikalpitah svabhāvo grāhyagrāhakalakṣaṇenātyantam asattvāt. bhrānteh saṃniśrayah paratantras tena tatparikalpanāt. anabhilāpyam aprapancātmakam ca pariniṣpannah svabhāvah. tatra prathamam tattvam parijneyam dvitīyam praheyam tṛtīyam viśodhyam cāgantukamalād viśuddham ca prakṛtyā. yasya prakṛtyā viśuddhasyākāśasuvarṇavārisadṛśī kleśād viśuddhih. na hyākāśādīni prakṛtyā aśuddhāni. na cāgantukamalāpagamād eṣām viśuddhir neṣyate.

- MSA, XIX. 56: prāpyam dharmadhātuḥ.
- <sup>5</sup> MSA, XX-XXI 42: sattvaparipākacaryā dvayor eva paripācanārtham. paripācanam hy atra vinayanam; XVII. 3, 22, 36; XIX. 56; DA, p. 125; BBh, p. 22. As regards the maturation of one's own self (ātmaparipāka) the following may be quoted from MSA, VIII. 1:

rucih prasādah prasamo 'nukampanā kṣamātha medhā prabalatvam eva ca | ahāryatāngaih samupetatā bhṛsam jinātmaje tat paripākalaksanam !

rucir mahāyānadeśanādharme. prasādas taddeśike. praśamaḥ kleśānām. anukampā sattveṣu. medhā grahaṇadhāraṇapratibedheṣu. prabalatvam adhigame. ahāryatā mārapravādibhiḥ. prāhāṇikāṅgaiḥ samanvāgatatvam. bhṛśam iti rucyādīnām adhimātratvaṃ darśayati. eṣa samāsena navaprakāra ātmaparipāko veditavyaḥ.

See also, VIII. 11:

iti navavidhavastupācilātmā paraparipācanayog; atām upetaḥ | śubhamayasatatapravardhitātmā bhavati sadā jagato 'grabandhubhūtah ||

KP, § 31: tad yathā kāśyapa tejodhātuḥ sarvasasyāni paripācayati evam eva kāśyapa bodhisattvasya prajītā sarvasattvānām sarvasukladharmān paripācayati.° See also the stanza which follows it.

In BBh, a whole chapter named  $Parip\bar{a}kapatala$  (VI) is devoted to it giving particulars.

Cf. lokapakti 'maturation of the world' in the SB, XI. 5. 7. 1.

has no existence, it is merely an imagination, simply a word, only a name; it is not perceived, and hence there is no perception.<sup>6</sup>

6 It may be noted that sometimes five jñeyas are found (BAP, p. 447: jñeyam pañcavidham), as says Sthiramati in MVT<sup>1</sup>, p. 6, viz, (i) the worlds (lokadhātu), (ii) the living beings (sattva), (iii) the elements of existence (dharma), (iv) the discipline (vinaya), and (v) the means (upāya). These seem to have no connexion herewith.

In the next few kārikās the author gives some leading. thoughts of the Agrayāna alluded to above:

91

prakṛtyākāśavaj jñeyāḥ sarve dharmā anādayaḥ t vidyate na hi nānātvaṃ teṣāṃ kvacana kiñcana II

'All the elements of existence are without beginning, and by nature they are to be known like the sky. Verily they have nowhere any variety.'

For the first half of the kārikā see IV. 1, where we have already seen that things are just like the sky as said in such texts as the ASP, p. 297: yathākāśam° already quoted there.

For the second half where it is said that there is no variety of things see the well-known Upanişadic texts: neha nānāsti kiñcana, BU, IV. 4.19; KU. IV. II; KtU, III.8; NS, IV. 1.34 ff (with Vātsyāyana). See also our own text, II.34, IV.94, 100.

92

ādibuddhāḥ¹ prakṛtyaiva² sarve dharmāḥ suniścitāḥ I yasyaivaṃ bhavati kṣāntiḥ so 'mṛtatvāya kalpate II

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See ādau buddhāḥ, IV. 98; cf. ādišānta, IV. 93, Tib. gzod ma.nas.shi.ba, from this one is to take ādi- here for āditaḥ meaning 'from the outset.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See IV. 93.

'By the very nature all elements of existence are well ascertained as originally knowledge. One who has such acquiescence is fit for immortality.'

The word buddha in ādibuddha means here bodha 'knowledge,' i.e., advaya jāāna which is called Tathāgata as we have already seen (IV. 82-84). See also SSP, p. 124:

tathāgatam bhadanta śāradvatīputra paryesitukāmenātmā paryesitavyaḥ. ātmeti bhadanta śāradvatīputra buddhasyaitad adhivacanam.

All phenomena are only in their imposed or imagined forms, they being buddha, or bodha or jñāna.

Cf. here the well-known phrase in later Vedāntic works 4: nityašuddhabuddhamuktasatyasvabhāva for Brahman.

As regards the meaning of the word kṣānti<sup>5</sup> a few words are required here. Generally, kṣānti means 'patience.' In Buddhism there are different kṣāntis of which the following three are often mentioned: (i) duḥkhādhivāsanākṣānti 'patience accepting miseries,' (ii) dharmanidhyāna° 'patience by meditating upon the elements of existence,' and (iii) parāpakāramarṣaṇa° 'patience bearing injuries done by others.' 6

Besides, in Buddhism it has other meanings. In explaining kṣānti (Pali khanti) in AN, I. 94, the commentary, Manoratha-pūraṇī, writes: khamatīti adhivāsanakhanti. It says that khanti means adhivāsana 'acquiescence,' 'consent.' or 'acceptance.' Again, we read in the AN, III. 118:

imesam āvuso tinnam puggalānam katamo te puggalo khamati abhikkantataro ca panītataro ca.

<sup>3</sup> Ś explains: ādibuddhāḥ nityabodhasvarūpāḥ.

<sup>4</sup> Such as VeS, pp. 38-39 (§28).

<sup>5</sup> Š: bodhakartavyatānirapekṣatā.

<sup>6</sup> As described in BA and BAP, VI (pp. 172 ff); \$S, IX (pp. 179 ff). Cf. DS, CVII.

The commentary explains *khamati* saying *khamatīti ruccati*. Accordingly the passage quoted above may be translated thus:

'Which of these three persons is, O friend, agreeable to you as the most excellent and exalted?'

Here evidently kṣānti is ruci 'pleasure', 'liking.' This is quite clear also from a passage of the SNt, 897,7 where the commentator in his MNs explains khanti (kṣānti) in the text by pema (preman) 'fondness, predilection,' chanda 'desire,' and rāga 'lust,' which are in fact, the same as ruci.<sup>8</sup>

Again, in Buddhist texts (CN, p. 164, see Vbh, p. 245) kṣānti is described as synonymous with the following words:
(i) dṛṣṭi (Pali diṭṭhi) 'view,' 'belief,' 'theory,' (ii) ruci 'pleasure,' 'liking,' (iii) labdhi (Pali laddhi) 'view,' 'belief,' 'theory'; (iv) adhyāśaya (Pali ajjhāsaya) 'intention,' 'thought,' and (v) abhiprāya (Pali adhippāya) 'intention,' 'opinion.' It is therefore quite clear from the above that kṣānti sometimes means dṛṣṭi 'view'. And so far as I can understand in the present case it is used in this sense.

See SP, p. 136; MSA, XI. 52; SRS, VII; DS, p. 63; Poussin: MV, pp. 362ff., and AK, VI, pp. 165 ff., as well as the works quoted herein; St. LA, p. 396.

- yā kāc'imā sammutiyo puthujjā sabbā 'va etā na upeti vidvā | anūpayo so upayam kim eyya diţihe sute khantim akubbamāno ||
- 8 See SN, IV. 348: bhūtapubbam bhante cattvāro satthāro nānādiṭṭhikā nānākhantikā nānārucikā; MN, I. 487, II. 43. See also the Sumangalavilāsinī on DN, II. 213: khantīti tattha katamā khanti yā khamanatā adhivāsanatā acaṇḍikkam anasuropo attamanatā cittassāti evam vuttā adhivāsanakhanti.
- 9 It may be noted that in Sanskrit, too, \( \shi\_{ksam} \) is not always used in the sense of 'to be patient,' or 'to endure,' etc. \( Cf. UC, I. 14: \) tan no yad uktam assivam na hi tat ksamam te. Here \( ksama \) has nothing to do with 'patience' or 'forbearance,' etc. In Pali (DhA, I. 40) \( \shi\_{khama} \) is said to mean 'to be fit,' 'to seem good,' specially in such cases as \( yatha \) te \( khameyya \) 'as may seem good to you.'

It is well-known in Prajñāpāramitāsūtras and the works based thereon that all elements of existence are devoid of the characteristics of their own (niḥsvabhāva), they neither originate (anutpanna), nor disappear (aniruddha), and as such they are quiescent from the outset (ādišānta=prakṛtišānta), and by the very nature they are merged in nirvāṇa (prakṛtinirvṛta). This point is mainly described in the following kārikā:

93

ādiśāntā¹ hy anutpannāḥ prakṛtyaiva sunirvṛtāḥ l sarve dharmāh samābhinnā ajam sāmyam² viśāradam³ l

'All elements of existence are quiescent from the outset, non-originated, and by the very nature perfectly merged in nirvāṇa; they are all equal and not different. (The absolute) is unborn, equal and fearless.'

Let us quote here the following from MSA, XI. 51:

niḥsvabhāvatayā siddhā uttarottaraniśrayāt | anutpannāniruddhādiśāntaprakṛtinirvṛtāḥ || 4

Here follows the commentary:

niḥsvabhāvatayānutpādādayaḥ. yo hi niḥsvabhāvaḥ so 'nutpanno yo 'nutpannaḥ so 'niruddho yo 'niruddhaḥ sa ādiśānto ya ādiśāntaḥ sa prakṛtinirvṛtaḥ.

- <sup>1</sup> Tib. gzod.ma.nas.shi.ba, lit. āditaḥ śāntaḥ.
- <sup>2</sup> See III. 2, 38; IV. 77, 80, 95, 100.
- <sup>3</sup> See the note on *vaišāradya* in the next kārikā. *Cf. nirbhaya* in I. 25, III. 35; and *abhaya* in IV. 78, and Upanişads, ChU, I. 4. 4, 5; IV. 15. 1. etc.
- <sup>4</sup> This is as reconstructed by Lévi according to the Chinese version. The original Sanskrit is lost. The scribe has, however, given here a corrupted kārikā and it is as follows:

niḥsvabhāvatayā siddhā uttarottaraniḥśrayāḥ ¦ anutpādo 'niruddhaś cādiśāntiḥ parinirvṛtiḥ ‼

See MSA., Tome II (French Translation), p. 122.

'Owing to the absence of nature there are no origination, etc. That which is devoid of nature is not originated; that which is not originated is not suppressed (destroyed); that which is not suppressed is quiescent from the outset; and that which is quiescent from the outset is naturally merged in perfect nirvāṇa.'

In the text śānti (connected with ādiśānta) and nirvrti or nirvāṇa (connected with sunirvṛta=parinirvṛta) are actually nothing but apravṛtti meaning 'not coming forth,' 'not arising,' 'not originating.' Elements of existence are ādiśānta and su-(=pari-) nirvṛta; it implies that originally they do not originate, and so to speak, they are in śānti and nirvāṇa. For the above explanation of the two words see MV, p. 529: yā'pravṛttis tan nirvāṇam iti vyavasthāpyate; p. 538: ya upaśamo 'pravṛttis tan nirvāṇam.

Poussin observes (ERE, Vol. 9, p. 851): "From an absolute point of view (paramārthatas) there is no difference (nānābhāva)<sup>5</sup> among things and the characters of things. Things are void (śūnya) like the daughter of a barren woman; characters are void like the beauty of this unreal daughter. Things are void, because there is no real origination of things—if no origination, no destruction, an eternal non-existence. There is no difference between existence (saṃsāra) and nirvāṇa. Not being produced (anutpanna), not being destroyed, things are from the beginning quiescent (ādiśānta), they are really, naturally (prakṛtyā) in nirvāṇa (parinirvṛta)."

For the wording and thought of the first half of the kārikā the following passages, besides MSA, XI. 51 already cited (p. 204), may be quoted:

- (i) ādiśāntā hy anutpannāḥ prakṛtyaiva ca nirvṛtāḥ dharmās te vivṛtā nātha dharmacakrapravartane
- <sup>5</sup> See our text: vidyate nahi nānātvam teṣām kvacana kincana, IV. 91, and also II. 34; III. 24; IV. 93-94.
- <sup>6</sup> Quoted in MV, p. 225, and SuS, p. 20 from Āryaratnameghasūtra. See Poussin: JRAS, 1910, pp 138-39; Sylvain Lévi: MSA, Tome II (French tr.), p. 122.

- (ii) atah sattvāh prakṛtyā parinirvṛtāh | BA, IX. 104.
- (iii) tasmāt sarvadharmā anutpannāniruddhasvabhāvatayā ādiśāntāḥ prakṛtinirvṛtāḥ. BAP, p. 589.
- (iv) paramārthasatyatah prakṛtinirvāṇatayādiśantatvāt. prakṛtinirvṛtatvāt sarvadharmāṇām iti.

Ibid, p. 385.

(v) ādipraśāntā imi sarvadharmāḥ | SP, II. 68.

The next kārikā is in support of what is said in the preceding one:

## 94

vaiśāradyam tu vai nāsti bhede vicaratām sadā l bhedanimnāh pṛthagvādās tasmāt te kṛpaṇāḥ smṛtāḥ l

'But verily those who always move following difference have no intrepidity. Those who maintain that a thing is diverse  $(prthak = n\bar{a}n\bar{a})$  are prone to difference, and are, therefore, regarded as pitiable.'

The word viśarada in IV. 93 of which the noun, vaiśāradya, is used here requires some explanation. According to S they mean 'pure' (viśuddha) and 'purity' (viśuddhi) respectively. It is supported by Bhojarāja saying in his vṛtti on YS, I. 47 that vaiśāradya means 'clearness' (nairmalya). This exposition is based on that of Vyāsa on the same YS.² The idea behind it may be explained in another way.³

- See IV. 91 and note 5 on IV. 93.
- <sup>2</sup> asuddhyāvaraṇamalāpetasya prakāśātmano buddhisattvasya rajastamobhyām anabhibhūtaḥ svacchaḥ sthitipravāho vaiśāradyam. Wood translates it thus: 'When freed from obstruction by impurity the sattva of thinking substance, the essence of which is light, has a pellucid steady flow not overwhelmed by rajas and tamas.'
- 3 As in India the season sarad 'autumn' is particularly clear, anything in that season (sārada 'autumnal'), such as the moon or water, is also clear. Thus sārada with the prefix vi- which here simply emphasizes the idea might have gradually been employed in the sense of 'clear,' its noun vaisāradya meaning 'clearness'.

The word viśārada is, however, of doubtful derivation. The prefix vi- only intensifies the meaning of śārada one of the meanings of which is 'mature,' i.e., 'rich in years' (śarad 'a year'), 'old.' Accordingly the secondary meaning with the prefix vi- is pravīņa 'clever.' As boldness (pragalbhatā) generally depends on one's maturity viśārada also means 'bold' (pragalbha).

In both Sanskiit and Pali the word śārada (Pali sārada) means apratibha or apragalbha 'timid,' 'not bold,' <sup>5</sup> and viśārada (Pali visārada) is used to mean 'scholar' (paṇḍiia) and 'bold' (pragalbha). <sup>6</sup>

In Buddhist writings vaiśāradya (Pali vesārajja) is explained as opposite to \*śāradya (Pali sārajja)<sup>7</sup> which means 'timidity.' That vaiśāradya is 'intrepidity' (nirbhayatā) is very clearly said in AKV<sup>2</sup>, p. 646.8 In Buddhism vaiśāradya is four-fold, viz., the vaiśāradya regarding (i) the highest knowledge of all things (sarvadharmābhisambodhivaiśāradya), (ii) the knowledge of destroying all the human passions (sarvāsravakṣayajānana°), (iii) rightly describing the impediments (antarāyikadharmānanyathātvaniścitavyākaraṇa°), and (iv) the rightness of the way leading to salvation (nairyāṇikapratipattathātva°).

- 4 It is read in the group of dṛḍhādi (Pāṇini, V. I. 123), and Vardha-māna explains it in his GM, p. 221, taking it in the sense of pravīṇa 'skilful,' 'clever': śāradaśabdaḥ pratyagravācī. yathā rajjuśāradam udakam, dṛṣacchāradāḥ saktavaḥ. sadyo hi rajjvoddhṛtam udakam pratyagram anupahatam rajjuśāradam ucyate. sadyaś ca dṛṣadā piṣṭāḥ saktavo dṛṣacchāradāḥ. śārada(tva)m pratyagratvam abhinavatvam. tad vigatam asya viśāradah pravīṇaḥ. pravīṇo lakṣaṇayā.° Hehimself is, however, not satisfied with it and goes on to say: athavā vyutpattiśūnyaḥ pravīṇavācī viśāradaśabdaḥ.
- 5 See AmK, III. 3. 95 : dvau tu śāradau | pretyagrāpratibhau vidvatsupra-galbhau viśāradau | AP, 984 : sārado saradubhhūte appagabhhe mato tisu.
  - 6 AP, 228, 959: vutto visārado tīsu suppagabbhe ca paṇḍite ||
  - vesārajjānīti ettha sārajjapatipakkho vesārajjam. MP cn AN, II. 8 ff.
- 8 nirbhayatā hi vaišāradyam The Tib. term for vaišāradya is mi.hjigs.pa which means nirbhaya or nirbhayatā.
- <sup>9</sup> MVt<sup>2</sup>, 8. In the same work (28) there is a different kind of vaiśāradya which is also four-fold. Again, the following four-fold vaiśāradya is enumerated

By modern scholars vaisāradya is variously explained or translated. Childers says (Dictionary, p. 564) it is 'confidence or fearlessness,' evidently taking višārada to mean 'bold' (pragalbha). Lévi explains it as 'assurance' (MSA, French tr., p. 319). Kern in his Eng. translation of SP1 (SBE, Vol. XXI), p. 246, interprets (referring to Burnouf: Lotus, p. 396; S. Hardy: Eastern Monachism, p. 291) it as 'absence of hesitation.' But to be consistent with the explanations offered by Vyāsa and Bhojarāja, Kern's exposition of the word in his Histoire du Bouddhisme dans l'Inde (French translation by G. Huet in the Annales du Musée Guimet, Tome X), Tome I, p. 283, deserves to be consulted in this connection.

in the MVu, Vol. II, p. 261: (i) kāya°, (ii) vācā°, (iii) citta° and (iv) pṛthu°. The last term is not clear, and Senart supposes (p. 545) that it is pṛthag°. Still it is to be ascertained.

In Sīlāńka's ţīkā on SKr, XIV. 17, viśārada (Pkt. visāraya) is explained as pratipādaka.

95

aje sāmye tu ye kecid bhavişyanti suniścitāḥ t te hi loke mahājñānās tac ca loko na gāhate II

'But only those who are quite certain about the *aja* 'unborn' and *sāmya* 'same' are possessed of great wisdom. The people, however, do not penetrate into it.'

- <sup>1</sup> For aja and sāmya sce IV. 77, 80, 93, 100.
- <sup>2</sup> It refers to aja and sāmya in the text. Ś explains tat taking it to signify the vartman 'way' of the sages which an ordinary man cannot grasp. Here Ś quotes the following from the MB(?):

sarvabhūtātmabhūtasya sarvabhūtahitasya ca | devā api mārge muhyanty apadasya padaiṣiṇaḥ | śakunīnām ivākāśe gatir naivopalabhyate ||

The first two lines with some variations in c are quoted also by S ā y a ņ a in his commentary on the TA, VIII. 2 (p. 547). For śakunīnām° see Ś on BU, p 637: ta utsahante khe 'pi śākunaṃ padaṃ draṣṭum; DP, 92-93 (with Aṭṭha-kathā): ākūse 'va sakuntānāṃ gati tesaṃ durannayā; Again, antarīkṣi śakunasya

Until and unless the knowledge becomes completely free from any relation to its object the highest cannot be attained. Therefore the knowledge must be asanga, i.e., detached from its objects. This state of its detachment is described in the following two kārikās (96, 97), the first of which runs:

vā padam, guoted from Āryaralnākarasūtra in MV, 90; tad yathāpi nāmākāše śakunipadam, SSP, p. 137; yathāntarikṣe śakuneh padam budhair, vaktum na śakyam na ca darśanopagam, quoted by Poussin in his French tr. of MA, p. 12 in Le Muséon, 1907, p. 261.

#### 96

ajesv ajam asamkrāntam dharmesu jñānam isyate l yato na kramate jñānam asangam tena kīrtitam l

'It is accepted that knowledge which is unborn does not go (i.e., relate itself) to the elements of existence, which are (also) unborn. As the knowledge does not go (to the elements of existence) it is declared to be free from attachment (asanga, i.e., free from any relation to its object).'

See IV. 72, 79 (niḥsaṅga), 97, 99; cf. agraha, III. 32. See also IV. 72:

cittam nirviṣayam nityam asangam tena kīrtitam | See IV. 1, note 5 where passages are quoted to show that jñāna is asanga.

1 Lit, desired (isyate).

#### 97

aņumātre'pi vaidharmye jāyamāne 'vipaścitaḥ l asangatā sadā nāsti kim utāvaraņacyutiḥ l

'If there be even the least difference (of elements of existence' in the mind) of an unwise man, there is no state of

<sup>1</sup> It is to be remembered that all elements of existence are in fact non-different: sarve dharmāḥ samābhinnāḥ (IV. 93), as we have already seen.

(its) being always free from attachment (asangatā), not to speak of the disappearance of the covering.

The state of being always asanga of jñāna or citta is referred to in the preceding kārikā (96).

As regards avarana 'covering' or 'obstruction', it is two-fold, (i) kleśa-āvarana and (ii) jñeya-āvarana². kleśa literally means that which troubles one by the strokes of various kinds of misery. as Vācaspati Miśra would explain it (YS, I. 24). Accordingly, as sinful desires, vices, or passions are for misery they are termed kleśa. For the same reason it also means 'impurity', 'stain'. Sometimes the word stands for 'lust' or 'sensuality' (raga), 'aversion' (dvesa), and 'bewilderment' (moha). There are also ten kleśas, lobha, dvesa, moha, māna, etc. (DSn. §1548).3 For further details see Pali-English Dictionary, PTS, s.v. kilesa, and MV, p. 361. Kleśa-āvarana thus means the avarana 'covering' or 'obstruction' in the form of klcsas. Until and unless they are destroyed (kleśaprahāna) the truth is not manifested, nor can one attain to the highest bliss.4 Kleśas are regarded as the mother of all miseries. Similarly inega is also an āvaraņa. The word jñeya means 'knowable,' i.e., the dharmas 'elements of existence' which are not substantial and thus they have no reality. Yet one perceives them (jñeyopalabdhi). And as long as one continues to do so one is far from the goal. Thus jñeya is regarded as an āvaraṇa,5

DS, CXV; MSA, IX. 3, 12, XX-XXI, 44; BA, IX. 55.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> In YS, II. 3, 5-9, there are five kinds of kleśa, viz., avidyā, asmitā, rāga, dveṣa, and abhiniveśa.

See MV, p. 538 : kleśanam apravittya va prapancopasamah.

<sup>5</sup> BAP, pp. 447: kleśā evāvṛtiḥ. jñeyam cāvṛtir āvaraṇam. °jñeyam eva samāropitarūpatvād āvṛtiḥ. Sometimes jñeyāvaraṇa is explained as jñeye āvaraṇam (Tk, p 15: jñeyāvaraṇam api sarvasmin jñeye jñanapratibandhabhūtam akliṣṭam ajñānam), 'the obstacle regarding the knowable,' (i.e., the reality or the things in their true nature). See TSP, pp. 869-890. Sometimes (AN, III. 436; AK, IV. p. 201) there are three āvaraṇas, (i) kleśāvaraṇa, (ii) karmāvaraṇa (5 ānantaryas and 10 akuśala karmapathas), and (iii) vipākāvaraṇa (8 akṣaṇas).

and it must be removed (jñeyānupalabdhi) for the realization of nirvāṇa. Jñeyāvaraṇa disappears by one's realizing the unreality of the elements of existence as separate entities (dharmanairātmya), while kleśāvaraṇa goes away by the realization of the unreality of the individual ego (pudgalanairātmya). Or both the āvaraṇas can be removed by the meditation on śūnyatā (BA, IX. 55).

6 LA, VII, p. 241: jñeyāvaraņam punar mahāmate dharmanairātmyadarśanaviśeṣād viśudhyate. kleśāvaraṇam tu pudgalanairātmyadarśanābhyāsapūrvakam prahīyate. See Sthiramati on Tk, p. 15.

The removal of  $\bar{a}vara\bar{n}a$  is referred to in the preceding  $k\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$ , but in the next  $k\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$  it is said that, in fact, there is no  $\bar{a}vara\bar{n}a$  at all:

98

alabdhāvaraṇāḥ sarve dharmāḥ prakṛtinirmalāḥ I ādau buddhās tathā muktā budhyanta iti nāyakāḥ II

'All the elements of existence have always been without any covering and unsullied in their nature. From the beginning they are knowledge as well as in nirvāṇa (mukta)—this the Buddhas understand.'

For ādau buddhāḥ see IV. 92,93. Because the elements of existence do not originate they are said as mukta, i.e., in śānti or nirvāṇa. On this see IV. 93, p. 205.

For prakrtinirmala see IV. 91; MV, p. 539:

avāca 'nakṣarāḥ sarva śūnyāḥ śāntādinirmalāḥ |

ya evam jānati dharmān kumāro buddha socyate ||

MV, p. 444: prakṛtiprabhāsvarāḥ sarvadharmāḥ; LA, X. 750, 753, 754: prakṛtiprabhāsvaraṃ cittam; ASP, p. 47: ādi-śuddhatvād ādipariśuddhatvāt sattvasya; CVP, 28:

ādiśuddham anutpannam niḥsvabhāvam anāvilam

jagad bhāvena sampa<br/>śyan na baddho na ca mucyate  $\|^1$ 

In the kārikā the word nāyaka is a name for the Buddha, MVt<sup>1</sup>, §1.20; AP, 4.725; BA, II.31, 66; \$S, p. 5, 1, 8.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Poussin, JRAS, 1910, p. 139.

Let us remember here that at the very beginning of the present Chapter (IV. I) the author has told us, that in the opinion of 'the greatest of men' (dvipadām vara), i.e. the Buddha, jñāna and jñeya are identical. He has also repeatedly shown above and specially in IV. 96, that jñāna is asanga as it does not relate itself to the dharmas or objects which have no reality. The author refers now to this fact and concludes showing the supreme truth that according to the Buddha there is in reality neither the jñāna nor the jñeya or dharmas as he has said neither of them:

99

kramate na hi buddhasya jñānam dharmeşu tāyinaḥ I sarvadharmās tathā jñānam naitad buddhena bhāsitam II

'According to the Buddha who instructs the way known to him  $(t\bar{a}yin)$ ,  $^2$   $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  does not approach the dharmas (i.e., it does not relate itself to the objects). But all dharmas as well as  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ —this has not been said by the Buddha.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See IV. 72, 79, 96. Cf. III. 32.

The word tayin is thus interpreted in BAP, p. 75: tayinam iti. svādhigatamārgadesakānām, yad uktam tūyah svadrstamārgoktih (PV, 2 145). See my paper, Pramanavarttika of Dharmakirtti, IHQ, Vol. XIII, 1937. This explanation is partly followed by Udayanācārya in his Tātparyaļīkāparišuddhi, Bib. Ind., p. 8 in explaining tāyin in Vācaspati Miśra's Tātparyafīkā, 2 (akṣapādāya tāyine): tāyī tattvādhyavasāyasamraksanaksamasampradāyapravartakaļi. Prajnākaramati in his BAP, p. 75. offeis another explanation: athava tāyah santānārthah. asamsaram apratisthitanirvānatayā avasthāyinām. This word is widely used both in Buddhist (LV, p. 421; BA, III. 2; SPI, pp. 25, 57, 67, etc.,) and Jaina (YS, Vol. 1, pp. 1, 47; DV, p. 115) works and is misunderstood. Sometimes it is read as trayin 'protector,' and tapin (as in the present case, see Variants). The word tāyin as a name for Buddha is translated into Tibetan by sky.b.pa (MVt1, §1. 15) which suggests its Sanskrit equivalent trāyin 'a protector.' See JRAS, 1910, p. 140; JPTS, 1891-1893, p. 53; JA, 1912, p. 243; Proceedings and Transactions of the Second Oriental Conference, Calcutta, 1922, pp. 450-1.

<sup>3</sup> See IV. 96.

What is the significance of the second half of the kārikā: 'all dharmas as well as jñāna—this has not been said by the Buddha?' Let us quote here a few passages showing that the Buddha has never said a word.

- (i) Nã gã r j u n a in his MK, XX. 25 :
  sarvopalambhopaśamaḥ prapañcopaśamaḥ śivaḥ |
  na kvacit kasyacit kaścid dharmo buddhena deśitaḥ ||
- (ii) Tathāgataguhyasūtra quoted in MV on the above:

yām ca rātrim tathāgato 'nuttarām samyaksambodhim abhisambuddho yām ca rātrim upādāya parinirvāsyati atrāntare tathāgatena ekam apy akṣaram nodāhṛtam na vyāhṛtam nāpi pravyāharati nāpi pravyāhariṣyati.

(iii) LA, pp. 142-3:

yām ca rātrim tathāgato 'bhisambuddho yām ca rātrim parinirvāsyati atrāntare ekam apy akṣaram tathāgatena nodāhṛtam na pravyāhariṣyati. avacanam buddhavacanam.

- (iv) Nāgārjuna in his NSt, 17: nodāhṛtaṃ tvayā kiñcid ekam apy akṣaraṃ vibho | kṛtsnaś ca vaineyajano dharmavarṣeṇa tarpitaḥ ||
- (v) Bhagavat quoted in MV, p. 264 and BAP, p. 365 (with a slight variation):

anakṣarasya dharmasya śrutiḥ kā deśanā ca kā | śrūyate deśyate cāpi samāropād anakṣaraḥ⁴ ||

(vi) LA, p. 137:

na me yānam mahāyānam na ghoso na ca aksarāh4

- (vii) LA, p. 48:
  - (a) tattvam hy aksaravarjitam; p. 194:
  - (b) niraksaratvād dharmasva.
- (viii) VCh, pp. 24:
- (a) tat kim manyase subhūte asti sa kaścid dharmo yas tathāgatena deśitah, evam ukta äyuṣmān subhūtir bhagavantam evam avocat, yathāham bhagavan bhagavato bhāṣitasyārtham

<sup>4</sup> Cf. IV. 60: yatra varņā na vartante.

ājānāmi nāsti sa kaścid dharmo yas tathāgatenānuttarā samyak sambodhir ity abhisambuddhah nāsti dharmo yas tathāgatena deśitah.

- (b) p. 29: tat kiṃ manyase subhūte api nv asti sa kaścid dharmo yas tathāgatena bhāṣitaḥ. subhūtir āha. no hīdaṃ bhagavan nāsti sa kaścid dharmo yas tathāgatena bhāṣitaḥ.
  - ix) LA, p. 144:
    yasyām ca rātryām dhigamo yasyām ca parinirvṛtaḥ |
    etasminn antare nāsti mayā kimcit prakāśitam ||
  - (x) MV, p. 539: avāca 'naksarāh sarva śūnyāh.° 5

Let us now make an attempt to understand the significance of such passages as cited above saying that the Buddha said nothing.

This statement is on two grounds, (i) pratyātmadharmatā, i.e., the nature of (the highest truth) which is realized in one's own self, and (ii) paurāṇasthitidharmatā, i.e., the nature of the elements of existence that remains from the past. This requires some explanation. As regards the first it is held that the transcendental truth (paramārtha) springs up only as an inward conviction (pratyātmavedya), it cannot be attained through instruction from another (aparapratyaya = paropadeśāgamya), for it cannot be expressed by any speech or word. So we are told that for the noble the transcendental truth is silence. This is well-known also in the Vedānta. Candrakīrtti writes (MV, p. 493):

sarva evāyam abhidhānābhidheyajñānajñeyādivyavahāro'śeṣo lokasaṃvṛtisatyam ity ucyate. na hi paramārthata eva tat sambhavati. kutas tatra paramārthe vācāṃ pravṛttiḥ kuto vā jñānasya. sa hi paramārtho 'parapratyayaḥ śāntaḥ pratyātmavedya āryāṇāṃ sarvaprapañcātītaḥ. sa nopadiśyate na cāpi jñāyate.

- 5 See IV. 98 where the kārikā is entirely quoted.
- 6 MV, p. 56: paramārtho hy āryāṇāṃ tūṣṇīmbhāvaḥ.
- <sup>7</sup> TU, II. 4. 1: yato vāco nivartante aprāpya manasā saha; KU, II. 3; BS, III. 2. 17; The Basic Conception of Buddhism, pp. 19 ff.

Thus the Buddha did not say anything in fact, yet the people according to their own dispositions think that he did so. We read therefore in a text, *Tathāgataguhyasūtra*, quoted in MV, p. 539, just after the passage (ii) cited above:

atha ca yathābhimuktāḥ sarvasattvā nānādhātvāśayās tāṃ vividhāṃ tathāgatavācaṃ niścarantiṃ saṃjānanti. teṣām evaṃ pṛthak pṛthag bhavati. ayaṃ bhagavān asmabhyam imaṃ dharmaṃ deśayati. vayaṃ ca tathāgatasya dharmadeśanāṃ śṛṇumaḥ. tatra tathāgato na kalpayati na vikalpayati sarva-kalpavikalpajālavāsanāprapañcavigato hi śāntamate tathāgata iti vistarah.°

#### Continues MV:

yadi tarhy evam [na] kvacit kasyaci[t kaści]d dharmo buddhena deśitas tat katham ima ete vicitrāḥ pravacanavyavahārā jñāyante. ucyate. avidyānidrānugatānām dehinām svapnā-yamānānām iva svavikalpābhyudaya eṣaḥ ayam bhagavān sakalatribhuvanasurāsuranaranātha imam asmabhyam deśayatīti.

The following may also be quoted here from the LA, p. 194:

na ca mahāmate tathāgatā akṣarapatitaṃ dharmaṃ deśayanti.° punar mahāmate yo 'kṣarapatitaṃ dharmaṃ deśayati sa pralapati. nirakṣaratvād dharmasya. ata etasmāt kānaṇān mahāmate uktaṃ deśanāpāṭhe mayānyaiś ca buddhabodhisattvair yathaikam apy akṣaraṃ tathāgatā nodāharanti na vyāharantīti. tat kasya hetor yad utānakṣaratvād dharmāṇām. na ca nārthopasaṃhitam udāharanti. udāharanty eva vikalpam upādāyānupadāyān mahāmate sarvadharmāṇāṃ śāsanalopaḥ syāt.°

And the conclusion arrived at here is that one should rest on the sense and not on letters, for one who rests on letters not only ruins oneself, but also cannot make others understand:

arthapratisaraṇena<sup>8</sup> mahāmate bodhisattvena mahāsattvena bhavitavyaṃ na vyañjanapratisaraṇena. vyañjanānusērī mahāmate kulaputro vā kuladuhitā vā svātmānaṃ ca nāśayati parārthaṃś ca nāvabodhayati. *Op. cit.*, pp. 194-195.

<sup>8</sup> In Buddhist Sanskrit texts we have often "sarana for "sarana in such cases

The second ground is this: The Buddha has said nothing, because what he is reported to have said was from the past. Nothing depends on the birth or absence of birth of the Tathāgatas, the true nature of elements of existence remains always the same. This is meant by the statement that the speech of the Buddha is no speech (avacanam buddhavacanam). Taking both the grounds together the LA, pp. 143-144, says:

yad idam uktam bhagavatā yām ca rātrim tathāgato 'bhisambuddho yam ca ratrim parinirvasyati atrantara ekam apy aksaram tathagatena nodahrtam na pravyaharisyati avacanam buddhavacanam iti. kim idam sandhāyoktam.° bhagavān āha. dharmadyayam mahāmate sandhāya mayaitad uktam. katamad dharmadvayam, yaduta pratyātmadharmatām ca paurānasthitidharmatām ca.º utpādād vā tathāgatānām anutpādād vā tathagatanam sthitaivaisam dharmanam dharmata dharmasthitita dharmaniyamata paurananagaramahapathavan mahamate.º tad yathā mahāmate kaścid eva puruso 'tavyām paryatan paurāņam nagaram anupasyed avikalapathapravesam. sa tam nagaram anupraviśet tatra praviśya pratiniviśya nagaram nagarakriyāsukham anubhavet, tat kim manyase mahāmate api nu tena puruseņa sa panthā utpādito yena pathā tam nagaram anupravisto nagaravaicitryam ca. āha. no bhagavan. bhagavān āha. evam eva mahāmate yan mayā tais ca tathāgatair adhigatam sthitaivaisā dharmatā dharmasthititā dharmaniyāmatā tathatā bhūtatā satyatā. ata etasmät käranän mahämate mayedam uktam yäm ca rätrim tathāgato 'bhisambuddho yām ca rātrim pariniivāsyati atrāntara ekam apy akşaram tathāgatena nodāhītam nodāharisyati.

The following may also be quoted here from the VCh, p. 243 just after the passage (viii) cited above:

tat kasya hetoḥ. yo 'sau tathāgatena dharmo 'bhisambuddho deśito vā agrāhyaḥ so 'nabhilāpyaḥ. na sa dharmo nādharmaḥ. tat kasya hetoḥ. asaṃskṛtaprabhāvitā hy āryapudgalāḥ.

It is thus quite reasonable that the author should declare at the end of his discussion the transcendental truth of iñāna

In the last kārikā of his work the author pays his homage to the highest truth to be realized, i.e., nirvāņa of the Buddhists, and Brahman of the Vedāntins:

## 100

durdarsam atigambhiram ajam sāmyam visāradam 1 buddhvā padam anānātvam namaskurmo yathābalam 1

iti gaudapādīya āgamaśāstre 'lātaśāntyākhyam caturtham prakaranam samāptam.

'Having understood that state which is difficult to be seen, very deep, unborn,<sup>2</sup> equal,<sup>3</sup> fearless,<sup>4</sup> and free from variety,<sup>5</sup> we salute it according to our power.

Here ends, in the Agamasastra of Gaudapada,

Book Four called the Cessation of the Fire-brand.'

The word pada 'state' in Buddhist literature is used also to mean nirvāṇa. But though it cannot be taken as a peculiarity in that literature, for the word is employed in the similar sense, i.e., mokṣa or Brahman also in Brāhmaṇical works, one is inclined to take it in the sense of nirvāṇa considering all that is aiscussed in this chapter. The two epithets durdarśa and atigambhīra strengthen the view. In Buddhist literature

See IV. 93d which is the same as b of the present kārikā.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> I. 16; III. 1, 19, 26, 33, 43, 47; IV. 11, 12, 13, 38, 46, 48, 57, 60, 74, 80, 93, 95, 96.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> III. 2, 38; IV. 77, 80, 93, 95.

IV. 93. Cf. abhaya, IV. 78; nirbhaya, III. 35.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> III. 13; IV. 91; BU, IV, 4. 19; KU, IV. 10-11.

<sup>6</sup> AP, 819: padam thane parittane nibbanamhi ca karane.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> For instance, KU, II. 15, III. 7-9.

sudurdṛśa (Pali sududdasa) is given as a synonym for nirvāṇa (AP, 7) and the words durdṛśa (Pali duddasa) 'difficult to be seen' and gambhīra 'deep' are frequently used in connection with it.<sup>8</sup>

The word bala 'power' in yathābala refers to the well-known five-fold bala in Buddhism, viz., (1) śraddhā-bala, (2) vīrya°, (3) smṛti°, (4) samādhi°, and (5) prajñā°, or the power of faith, energy, recollection, contemplation, and wisdom respectively. By using the word it is implied that nirvāṇa is realized by the exercise of the five-fold power referred to.

In the colophon for alāta 'fire-brand' see IV. 47-50. The use of the word alātaśānti 'cessation of the fire-brand' is very significant and appropriate indicating the quintessence of what is discussed herein.

Poussin has traced (JRAS, 1910, p. 135) the simile of the firebrand (alātacakra) in the MU, 10 VI. 24.11 But this simile can in no way be connected with the name of the present chapter, alātaśānti. For the use of the simile in that Up, is

- 8 See nirvāṇarūpo dharmo gambhīro durdṛśaś ca, LV, pp 509, 513, 515; gambhīram durdarśam sūkṣmam dharmacakram, *Ibid*, pp. 422, 436 (gambhīro durdṛśo mama); ASP, p. 341: gambhīram iti subhūte śūnyatāyā etad adhivacanam° virāgasya nirodhasya nirvāṇasya vigamasyaitad adhivacanam yad uta gambhīram iti; MVg, I. 5. 2 8: ayam dharmo gambhīro duddaso. Cf. KU, II. 12 where durdarśa is used as an adjective of the deva referring, according to the Commentators, to ātman.
- <sup>9</sup> AN, III. 12; DN, II. 120; etc, DS, XLVIII. These five are well-known also in the system of Yoga (YS, I. 20), though these are not described here as bala. According to scholiasts śraddhā implies the clearness (samprasāda, prasāda) of the mind. V a s u b a n d h u (AK, VIII. 9) is of the same opinion. See *ibid.* also II. 25.
- 10 Maitrāyaṇa Brāhmaṇa Up. is another name for it. But it does not show any Vedic traces. From its language, style, and contents it appears that it belongs to a considerably later period.
- 11 It runs: alātacakram iva sphurantam ādityavarņam ūrjasvantam brahma tamasaḥ paryapaśyat. Cowell (Bibl. Ind.) translates it: "he beholds Brahman flashing like the circle of a whirling torch, in colour like the sun, full of vigour."

not for showing any unreality of Brahman but simply for indicating his splendour. On the other hand, here in our work, as well as in Buddhist works, frequently, and in every case, so far as goes my information, it is used as one of the numerous symbols of unreality.<sup>12</sup> The following may be quoted here from C5, 325:

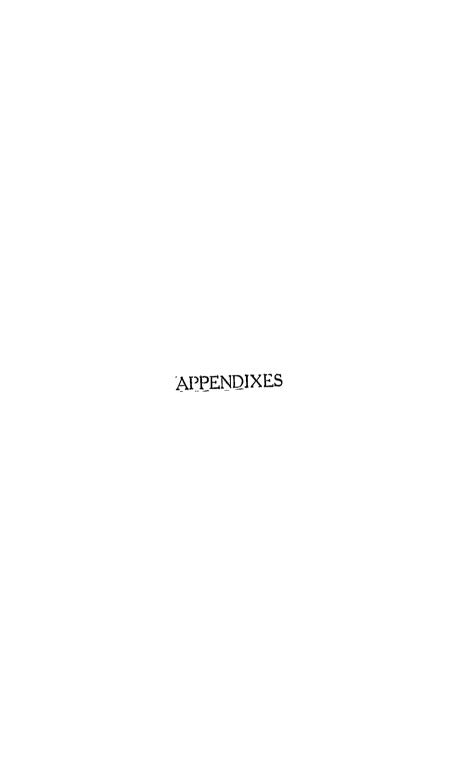
alātacakraniımāṇasvapnamāyāmbucandrakaiḥ | dhūmikāntaḥpratiśrutkāmarīcyabhraiḥ samo bhavaḥ ||

Poussin observes (JRAS, 1910, p. 136) that the title of the fourth Chapter, alātaśānti, cannot be said so far to be Buddhist, as the phrase alātaśānti has not been traced in Buddhist books. We cannot however, think so. For, it may equally be said that it is not traced in any Brāhmaṇic work older than the ĀŚ. Now, it may not be traced in Buddhist works, but the word alāta as a symbol of unreality according to the Buddhists, of which their works are full, 14 is very well-known. Gauḍapāda himself has used it as such in his ĀŚ not less than four times (IV. 47-50). He has shown taking the stand of a Buddhist, the unreality of the visible world comparing it with alāta, and finding out the cause of its appearance and showing thereby as to how it ceases. And if it is so, we cannot say that the title of the chapter is not Buddhist.

Such as marumarīcikā, gandharvanagara, khapuṣpa. See MVt¹, 139. 21.

<sup>13</sup> A similar phrase, mṛgatṛṣṇājalabhrāntiśānti, occurs in YV, III. 6. 2.

<sup>14</sup> See among others LA, pp. 9, 96, etc.



### MĀŅDŪKYA UPANIŞAD

A

#### **TEXT**

l

om ity etad akṣaram idam sarvam tasyopavyākhyānam¹ bhūtam bhavad² bhaviṣyad³ iti sarvam oṅkāra eva. yac cānyat trikālātītam tad apy oṅkāra eva.

2

sarvam hy etad<sup>4</sup> brahmāyam ātmā brahma so'yam ātmā catuṣpād.

3

jāgaritasthāno bahiṣprajūaḥ saptāngo ekonaviṃśatimukhaḥ sthūlabhug vaiśvānaraḥ prathamaḥ pādaḥ.

4

svapnasthāno 'ntaḥprajñaḥ saptāṅga ekonaviṃśatimukhaḥ praviviktabhuk taijaso<sup>5</sup> dvitīyaḥ pādaḥ.

- <sup>1</sup> ChāU, I. 1. 1: om ity akṣaram° tasyopavyākhyānam; cf. TU, I. 8. 1: om itīdam sarvam.
  - <sup>2</sup> A<sup>4</sup> omits it.
  - 3 Cf. BU, 111. 8. 3, IV. 6. 7: yad bhūtam ca bhavac ca bhavişyac ca.
  - 4 For hy etad A4 tad.
  - <sup>5</sup> A<sup>2</sup> adds *hiraṇyagarbho* after it.

5

yatra supto<sup>6</sup> na kañcana kāmam kāmayate na kañcana svapnam paśyati<sup>7</sup> tat suṣuptam. suṣuptasthāna ekībhūtaḥ<sup>8</sup> prajnānaghana evā<sup>9</sup>nandamayo hy ānandabhuk cetomukhaḥ prājnas tṛtīyaḥ pādaḥ.

6

eṣa sarveśvara<sup>10</sup> eṣa sarvajña<sup>11</sup> eṣo 'ntaryāmy<sup>12</sup> eṣa yoniḥ sarvasya<sup>13</sup> prabhavāpyayau<sup>14</sup> hi bhūtānām.

7

nāntaḥprajñam na bahiṣprajñam nobhayataḥprajñam na prajñānaghanam na prajñam nāprajñam adṛṣṭam avyavahāryam agrāhyam alakṣaṇam acintyam avyapadeṣ́yam ekātmapratyayasāram

sāram

sāram

sāntam sántam advaitam caturtham manyante. sa ātmā sa vijñeyaḥ.

- $^6$   ${\rm A}^4$  susupto for supto, adds tu before kañcana, and omits eva after  $^\circ{\rm ghana}.$ 
  - 7 BU, IV. 3. 19.
  - 8 Cf. ekibhavati, PU, IV. 2; BU, IV. 4. 2.
  - 9 BU, IV. 5. 13: ātmānantaro 'bāhyah kṛtsnah prajñānaghana eva.
- BU, IV. 4. 22: sa vā eṣa mahān aja ātmā yo 'yam vijñānamayaḥ prāṇeṣu ya eṣo 'ntarhīdaya ākāśas tasmiñ chete' esa sarveśvarah'.
  - 11 MuU. I. 1.9: yaḥ sarvajñaḥ; PU, IV. 10: sa sarvajñaḥ.
  - 12 BU, III. 7.3: eșa ta atmantaryami.
  - 13 Cf. bhūtayoni, MuU, I. 1. 6: yad bhūtayonim paripasyanti dhīrāḥ.
  - 16 A<sup>2</sup> prabhāvā°, D<sup>2</sup> prabhavo° for prabhavā°. KU, 11. 2. 11.
- 15 Al reads nāntaḥprajñaṃ na bahiṣprajñam after nāprajñam, and has na prajñaṃ nāprajñaṃ na ghanaṃ na ghanaṃ na prajñānaghanam for na prajñāna $^{\circ}$  nāprajñam. Al omits na prajñānaghanaṃ. After alakṣaṇam Al anigamano (? aliṅgam) adding to it bahiḥprajñaṃ (S reads in his commentary alakṣaṇam aliṅgam ananumeyam ityarthaḥ) nāntaḥprajñam and reading cintyam for acintyam. Dl and Dl add aliṅgam before acintyam. Al ekūntam for ekūtma- $^{\circ}$ , T' and V' aikātmyapra $^{\circ}$  for ekūtmapra $^{\circ}$ .

8.

so 'yam ātmā 'dhyakṣaram oṅkāro 'dhimātram pādā mātrā mātrāś ca pādā akāra ukāro makāra<sup>16</sup> iti.

9

jāgaritasthāno vaiśvānaro kāraḥ<sup>17</sup> prathamā mātrāpter<sup>18</sup> ādimattvād vāpnoti ha vai sarvān kāmān ādiśca bhavati ya evam veda.

10

svapnasthānas taijasa ukāro dvitīyā mātrotkarṣād ubhayatvād votkarṣatīha vai jūānasantatim samānas ca bhavati nāsyābrahmavit kule bhavati ya evam veda.

11

susuptasthānah prājño makāras tṛtīyā mātrā miter apīter vā minoti ha vā idam sarvam apītis ca bhavati ya evam veda.

12

amātras caturtho 'vyavahāryaḥ prapañcopasamaḥ sivo 'dvaita evam onkāra ātmaiva. samvisaty ātmanātmānam¹9 ya evam veda.

iti māndūkyopanisat samāptā.

<sup>16</sup> A2 A3 IO ras ceti for ra iti.

<sup>17</sup> Al omits 'kāraḥ.

<sup>18</sup> Al prapter(?), 10 aptor for apter.

VS, XXXII. 11: ātmanātmānam abhi sam viveśa. A² adds paśyati after °tmānam. K¹ Ch M' repeat ya evam veda which follows.

#### TRANSLATION

1

Om, this syllable is all this. Its further explanation is: the past, the present, the future—all this is verily om. And whatever else that is beyond the three times, that, too, is verily Om.

2

Verily all this is Brahman; this self (ātman) is Brahman. This same self has four fourths.

3

The first fourth is the Vaiśvānara 'common-to-allmen,' i.e., universal, (active) in the waking state, cognitive outwardly, having seven limbs and nineteen mouths enjoying the gross.

- 1 According to S who follows here ChāU, V. 18. 2, these seven limbs are described thus: The very bright one (sutejas), i.e., the heaven is the head. One with various forms (viśvarūpa), i.e., the sun is the eye. That which has various paths, i.e., the wind is the breath. The extended space (bahula) is the body. Wealth (i.e., water) is the bladder. And the earth is the feet. Here in the ChāU the number is more than seven.
- <sup>2</sup> I.e., the means for experience of objects. According to S these are the following: The five organs of sense (buddhīndriya), the five organs of action (karmendriya), the five vital breaths (prāṇa), the mind (manas), the intellect (buddhi), egoism (ahaṅkāra), and thinking (citta). For an explanation of the last four one may be referred to the following:

mano buddhir ahankāroś cittam karanam antaram samśayo niścayo garvah smaranam visayā ime !!

These are regarded as 'mouths,' because these are the instruments with which one experiences the objects.

## Append. I, B] MANDŪKYA UPANIŞAD, TR.

4

The second fourth is the Taijasa 'brilliant,' (active) in the dreaming state, cognitive inwardly, having seven limbs and nineteen mouths, enjoying the subtle.

5

That is deep sleep in which one asleep desires no desire whatsoever, nor does he see any dream.

The third fourth is Prājña 'wise.' He is in the sphere of deep sleep, and just unified, a cognition-mass, consisting of bliss and enjoying bliss having the mind as mouth.

6

This is the lord of all, this is the knower of all, this is the controller of all. This is the source of all, for this is the origin and end of beings.

7

Not inwardly cognitive, not outwardly cognitive, not bothwise cognitive, not a cognition-mass, not cognitive, not non-cognitive, not seen, not to be dealt with, not graspable, having no distinctive marks, not thinkable, not to be defined, the essence of the consciousness of the oneness of the self, the cessation of the expression, quiescent, blissful, without a second—(such) they think is the fourth. He is the self. He is to be realized.

8

The same self is om from the point of view of a syllable, and from the point of view of its measure, the fourths are measures and the measures are fourths, and they are A, U and M.

<sup>3</sup> Or, the expansion of the universe, as explained generally.

9

Vaiśvānara 'common-to-all-men' who is (active in) the waking state is the first measure, A, on account of its obtaining (āpti), or on account of its being the first. Verily, indeed, he obtains all desires and becomes first, who knows thus.

10

Taijasa 'brilliant' who is (active in) the sleeping state is the second measure, U, on account of exaltation or intermediateness.

Verily, indeed, he exalts the continuity of knowledge, becomes equal,<sup>5</sup> and none who does not know Brahman is born in the family of him who knows thus.

11

Prājña 'wise' who is (active in) the state of deep sleep is the third measure, M, on account of measuring and immerging.

Verily, indeed, he measures 'all this and becomes (its) immerging—he who knows thus.

12

The fourth is without any measure, with which there can be no dealing, it is cessation of expression, blissful, without the second. Thus om is the self, indeed. Enters he with his self into the self—he who knows thus.

Here ends the Upanişad called Māndūkya.

<sup>4</sup> Or, pervading.

<sup>5</sup> See the note in Hume's translation.

#### **VARIANTS**

#### Воок І

- 1. a. All excepting A<sup>4</sup> bahiḥprajño for bahiṣprajño. d. A<sup>4</sup> PU<sup>1</sup> PU<sup>2</sup> smṛtaḥ, N Th mataḥ for sthitaḥ.
- 2. a.  $A^2$  dakṣiṇāgni°,  $V^{\sigma}$  dakṣiṇekṣi° for dakṣiṇākṣi°;  $D^2$ ° mukho for mukhe. b.  $T^{e}$  °ś ca for °s tu. c and d are omitted in  $A^2$ .
- 3. a and b excepting praviviktabhuk are omitted in  $A^2$ . d.  $A^2$  adds tan before nibodhata.
- 4. b.  $A^2$  ca for tu which is omitted in  $A^4$ . c.  $A^1$   $A^2$   $K^3$  IO ānandaṃ for ānandaś;  $V^n$   $A^4$  tu for ca; IO prājānh for prājānm. d.  $A^3$  trividhā for tridhā;  $A^2$  tṛptaṃ for tṛptiṃ;  $A^1$   $A^2$   $A^4$   $K^3$  vijānata, KN vijānatha for nibodhata.
- 5. a.  $A^1$  dhāmastu for dhāmasu. b.  $K^3$  yas tu for yas ca. c.  $D^3$   $V^n$  vastu for yas tu.
- 6. a. K³ °bhūtānām for bhāvānām. b. D¹ D² °ity eva niścayaḥ for °iti viniścayaḥ; D³ sa niścayaḥ for viniścayaḥ. c. D¹ sarve for sarvam; D¹ D² prāṇā, A¹ prāṇām° for prāṇa°; A¹ °ś cetostana, D³ PU² °ś ceto msūn for °ś ceto msūn.
- 7. a. A¹ D² vibhūti pra°, A³ vibhūtiḥ pra° for vibhūtiṃ pra°; KN, prabhavaṃ for prasavaṃ; K¹ pravadanty anye for prasavaṃ tv anye. c. A′ °sarūpeti for °svarūpeti. d. V° vikalpyate, IO vikalpitāḥ for vikalpitā.
- 8. b.  $A^2$  omits vi of viniścitāh;  $V^g$  sṛṣṭir  $vi^\circ$  for ṣṛṣṭau  $vi^\circ$ . c.  $K^a$  adds  $bh\bar{u}tim$  before  $bh\bar{u}t\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$ . d.  $A^a$  matyante,  $K^a$  mānte for manyante.
- 9. At the end of the kārikā IO adds the first two ślokas of S's commentary, viz., prajāānāṃśu° and yo viśvātmā.°

- 10. a. A¹ nivṛttiḥ, T' nivṛtte for nivṛtteḥ. c. A' °bhūtānāṃ for °bhāvānāṃ. IO omits the kārikā here, but reads it just after kārikā 12.
- 11. a. A¹ A² A³ D² °buddhau for °baddhau. d. Ae Me Vu D³ Vn A⁴ K³ dvau tau, PU² and the MSS ABCDF of NSi (pp. 194, 246) dvau tu, A¹ A² D¹ dvaita, PU¹ dvaitam, K³ PU² dvau tu for dve tu, while for this line K³ reads dvau turye na tu sidhyataḥ.
- 12. a. V" parai° for parām°. b. V" vānņ° for cānņ°, PU¹ cāpi nānņtam for nāpi cānņtam. d. K³ A° A¹ A² A³ D¹ D³ V" turyam tat (cf. Ś), KN turīyam for turīyah.
  - 13. d. K<sup>3</sup> tu for ca.
  - 14. c. svapnam tu for ca svapnam.
  - 15. a. D<sup>2</sup> PU<sup>1</sup> grahņatah for gṛhṇatah. c. A<sup>1</sup> 'nayoh for tayoh.
- 16. b.  $A^1$  sa  $bu^\circ$ ,  $A^2$  sva $bu^\circ$  for pra $bu^\circ$ . c.  $D^1$  asuptam for asvapnam. c and d.  $A^4$  advaitam asvapnam for asvapnam advaitam.
- 17. a and b.  $A^4$  vidyate vivartate for vidyeta nivarteta. c.  $A^4$  sarvam for dvaitam.
- 18. a.  $K^3$  na nivarleta for vinivarteta;  $K^1$  omits it. b.  $K^1$  vikalpito for kalpito.
  - 19. a. A<sup>4</sup> °syūdivi° for °syūtvavi°.
- 20. a. All excepting  $A^r V^n V^n$  vijñāne for vijñāna. b.  $A^r A^2$   $A^4$  sphuļaḥ for sphuļam. c.  $A^2$  saprati° for samprati°. d.  $A^1$ ° vidhim for °vidham.
- 21. b. D² PU² mānam sā° for mānasā°. c. A² saprati° for samprati°. d. A⁴ laye sā°, D² layaḥ sā° for layasā°.
- 22. a. All excepting  $PU^1$  yat for yah supported by S. b.  $D^1$  IO  $PU^2$  veti,  $K^3$  ceti for vetti;  $A^4$  tadvatah,  $K^3$  niścitam,  $PU^1$  niścitah for niścitah. c.  $M^c$  sampū° for sa pū°. d.  $M^c$  °caiṣa for °caiva.
- 23. a. D<sup>2</sup> nayati for nayate. d. M and KN 'gatiḥ for gatiḥ.
  - 24. a. A4 oṅkāro for oṅkāram.
  - 25. a. pranavo for pranave.

- 26. a. For this  $K^1$  praṇavo brahmaparaḥ brahma. b.  $A^1$   $A^2$   $A^3$   $D^1$   $D^2$   $M^e$   $V^q$   $V^n$  paraḥ for paraṃ; IO paraḥ smṛtaḥ for paraṃ smṛtaḥ.
  - 27. d. A<sup>2</sup> °taraḥ for °taram.
- 28. a.  $A^4$  omits hi before īśvaram. b.  $A^1$   $A^4$  Gh Ch J N  $V^7$  hṛdaye sthitam for hṛdi saṃsthitam.
  - 29. b. A4 smṛtah for śivah.

Colophon:

A4 mändūkyopanisat samāptā.

D¹ D² māṇḍūkyopaniṣadvyākhyāne gauḍapādabhagavataḥ kṛtau oṅkāranirṇayaḥ prathamaṃ prakaraṇam.

IO iti māṇḍūkyopaniṣat samāptā.

K¹ iti māṇdūkyopaniṣadgaudapādavyākhyāne oṅkārākhyaprathamam prakaraṇam samāptam.

K³ iti māṇḍūkyopaniṣat samāptam (sic). hare kṛṣṇa hare kṛṣṇa°.

PU¹ prathamam prakaranam.

PU² iti śrīgovindapūjyapādaśiṣyasya paramahaṃsaparivrājakā-cāryasya śaṅkarabhagavataḥ kṛtāv āgamaśāstravivaraṇe prathamaprakaraṇe māṇḍūkyavyākhyānaṃ samāptam.

V<sup>σ</sup> māṇḍūkyopaniṣat samāptā.

V" iti māṇḍūkyākhyam prathamam prakaraṇam.

#### Book II

- 1. a. A² °bhūtānāṃ for °bhāvānāṃ. c. A¹ A² Conc. bhedānām for bhāvānāṃ.
- 2. b.  $V^{\sigma}$   $D^{e}$  dehān for deśān. c.  $V^{\sigma}$  prabuddhaś for pratibuddhaś.
  - 3. Before this kārikā B² reads here the kārikā 4 once more.
- 4. b. A<sup>3</sup> A<sup>e</sup> B<sup>2</sup> IO K<sup>1</sup> M<sup>e</sup> PU<sup>2</sup> tasmāt for tathā. d. All samurtatvena for samurtatvam na; A<sup>3</sup> vidyate for bhidyate.
- 5. a.  $A^2$  omits svapna°;  $A^r$   $A^3$   $B^2$   $D^1$   $D^2$  IO  $PU^2$   $V^n$  °ritasthāne for °1 ite sthāne.
- 7. b.  $PU^2$  svapno for svapne;  $V^g$  ca prati°, all others viprati° for 'pi prati.°

- 8. a.  $A^2$   $A^3$   $B^2$  apūrvasthānidharmo,  $A^1$   $B^1$   $D^1$   $D^2$   $M^c$   $PU^1$   $PU^2$   $V^n$   $V^n$  apūrvam sthanidharmo for apūrvāh sthānidharmāh. c.  $V^n$  matvā for gantvā. d.  $K^1$   $V^n$  yadaive for yathaive.
- 9. a. A¹ °vṛttāv ayaṃ tv anta°, A² °vattāv artheṣv ānt², B¹ J Jh Vⁿ °vṛttāv apy anta°, Gh C °vṛttāpy anta°, IO °vṛttāv apy anta° for °vṛttāv api tv anta°; K¹ °svanta° for °tv anta°. b. Vʻ kalitaṃ for kalpitaṃ; B¹ D¹ D² Gh J Jh K¹ asat, A² IO tad asat, A¹ tad idam asat for tv asat. c. A¹ A² B¹ C D¹ D² IO Jh K¹ N PU² Vⁿ °ś cetasā for °ś ceto°, A¹ A² B¹ IO add hi and C J Jh N add ca after gṛhītam. d. Vⁿ vaitathyam ubhayor api omitting dṛṣṭam, A¹ K¹ sadasator vaitathyaṃ dṛṣṭam, A² sadasator vaitathyaṃ dṛṣṭam, A² sadasator vaitathyaṃ yuktam.
- 10. a. A<sup>2</sup> D<sup>1</sup> D<sup>2</sup> anta°, V<sup>n</sup> hy anta° for tv anta°. b. B<sup>1</sup> D<sup>1</sup> D<sup>2</sup> Gh J Jh K<sup>1</sup> V<sup>n</sup> asat, A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> tad idam asat for tv asat. c. A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> B<sup>1</sup> D<sup>1</sup> D<sup>2</sup> Gh J Jh K<sup>1</sup> PU<sup>1</sup> PV<sup>2</sup> V<sup>n</sup> °ś cetasā for °ś ceto°, A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> B<sup>1</sup> IO add hi, the last one omitting sat, C J Jh N add ca omitting sad, A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> B<sup>1</sup> Gh J Jh add hi after gihītam. d. A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> sadasator vaitathyam diṣiam, B<sup>1</sup> D<sup>1</sup> D<sup>2</sup> Gh J Jh V<sup>n</sup> sadasator vaitathyam yuktam, K<sup>1</sup> satyadator vaitathyam for yuktam vaitathyam etayoh. IO and P omit the kārikā entirely.
- 11. a-b.  $A^2$  adds tad after vaitathyam,  $V^n$  bhedānām vaitathyam for vaitathyam bhedānām. c.  $V^n$  ekatān for ka etān.
- 12. a. P ātmani as a different reading for ātmānam. b. K M' ātmadehaḥ for ātmā devaḥ. c.  $V^{\sigma}$  bhogān for bhedān.
- 13. b. All except P vyavasthitān for vyavasthitān. c. A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> B<sup>1</sup> IO °ś cittam for °ś citta, B<sup>2</sup> first °ś cittam then the anusvāra is struck off.
- 14. a.  $B^1$  °  $l\bar{a}$ ś ca for °  $l\bar{a}$  hi,  $K^1$  yetas for ye'ntas. b.  $D^2$  ya for ye.
- 15. d. A² viścṣā mānyahetukaḥ (evidently for viścṣo nānyahetukaḥ) for viścṣas tv indriyāntare. After that reading the MS reads asti tv indriyāntare.
  - 18. d. A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> B<sup>1</sup> D<sup>1</sup> D<sup>2</sup> PU<sup>1</sup> ātmāvi° for ātmavi°.
  - 19. a. A. A. B. M. V. os ca for s tu. b. D. kalpitā for

- kalpitaḥ. d. A¹ A² B¹ B² IO K¹ PU¹ saṃmo°, V  $^{\sigma}$  yan mo° for 'yam mo° supported by Ś.
- 20. a. A<sup>e</sup> A<sup>3</sup> B<sup>2</sup> D<sup>1</sup> K<sup>1</sup> IO PU<sup>1</sup> PU<sup>2</sup> V<sup>n</sup> prāṇa for prāṇā. b. D<sup>2</sup> bhūtā iti for bhūtānīti. c. B<sup>1</sup> guṇa for guṇā. d. K<sup>1</sup> tadvivaḥ for tadvidaḥ.
- 21. b. A¹ viṣayā i bhūtānīti ca, A² bhūviṣayāti ca for viṣayā iti; PU¹ adds ca after iti. c-d. A² vedā iti vedavido yajñā° (i.e., a and b of the next kārikā) for lokā iti lokavido.
- 22. a-b.  $A^2$  lokā iti lokavido devā iti ca tadvidaḥ for the whole line.  $M^e$  adds ca after iti in a. c.  $A^2$  omits ca. d.  $M^e$   $V^g$  °jya for °jyam.  $K^1$  omits c and d.
  - 23. d. V<sup>g</sup> amūrta for 'mūrta omitting ca after iti.
- 24. a. 10 kālā for kāla. c. V<sup>g</sup> pata iti vāta° for vādā iti vāda°. d. B¹ V³ bhuvanāni ca for bhuvanānīti.
  - 25. a. V<sup>q</sup> ca tadvido, Gh C Ch mana° for mano°.
- 27. a.  $D^1$   $D^2$   $lokaloka^\circ$ , IO  $lokaloka^\circ$  for  $lokaloka^\circ$ . b. IO adds ca after iti. c.  $D^1$   $D^2$  °napuṃsakapuṃliṅgāḥ for °puṃnapuṃsakaṃ laiṅgāḥ;  $PU^1$  liṅgāt,  $PU^2$  liṅgā for laiṅgāḥ. d.  $D^1$   $D^2$  parasparam for parāparam;  $B^1$  alho° for athā°.
- 28. d.  $A^e M^e V^n$  sarve for sarvam;  $V^n$  tehe tu samyatāh for ceha tu sarvadā.
- 29. a.  $K^1$  yad for yam. b. tad for lam;  $A^2$  san for sa. c.  $A^1$  vāvam vipra bhū for cāvati sa bhū°; vāvati for cāvati.
  - 30. d. Vg oyed yo vio for oyet so 'vio.
  - 32. Before this kārikā  $A^1 B^1$  and  $V^n$  read:

tamaḥ svapnanibham dṛṣṭam varṣabudbudasamnibham | nāśaprāyam sukhāddhīnam nāśottaram abhāvajam ||

- (a. C nabhasy abhra° for tamaḥ svapna°; Ae śvabhra° for svapna°. d. Ae B¹ abhāvagam, Vn abhāvataḥ for abhāvajam). It is quoted by Ś in his commentary on the preceding kārikā as from the Vyāsasmṛti. P takes it as one of the verses included in the text and comments upon it.
- b. V" baddho and sādhyakah for bandho and sādhakah respectively.

- 33. c. A¹ atha dva°, A² artha dva° for apy adva°. d. A² yasmā° for tasmā², śivah for śivā.
- 34. a. A² nātmābhāvena, all others nātmabhāvena for nānyabhāvena; J nābhedaṃ for nānedaṃ. c. A² prthaktvāt prthak ki°, A³ prthaktvāt prthaktvaṃ ca, D¹ prthan nāprthat ki°, D² prthaktvāprthak ki° for prthan nāprthak ki°.
  - 36. b. B² yojayot for yojayet.
  - 37. a. PU1 nihstutir for nistutir, A2 ostuto for oskaro.
  - 38. a. K1 mātattva° for tattva°.

#### Colophon:

B<sup>I</sup> iti śrīgovindabhagavatpūjyapādaśiṣyasya paramahaṃsaparivrājakācāryasya śrīśaṅkarabhagavatpādasya kṛtāv āgamaśāstravivaraṇe dvitīyaṃ prakaraṇaṃ vaitathyākhyaṃ samāptaṃ.

K<sup>1</sup> iti śrīmāṇḍūkyopaniṣadgauḍapādavyākhyāne vetadhāsa (sic) dvitīyam prakaraṇam samāptam.

PU<sup>2</sup> iti śrīgovindabhagavatpūjyapādaśiṣyasya paramahaṃsaparivrājakācāryasya śrīśaṅkarabhagavataḥ kṛtāv āgamaśāstravivaraṇe dvitīyaṃ prakaraṇaṃ vaitathyākhyaṃ samāptam.

 $\mathsf{V}^g$ °āgamašāstre vaitathyākhyam dvitīyam prakaraņam samāptam.

V" °vaitathyākhyam dvitīyam prakaranam.

#### Book III

- 1. a.  $A^1$  upāsāśri° for upāsanāśri°. b.  $A^1$   $A^2$   $A^3$  Gh  $N \cdot J$  jñāte for jāte.
- 2. b. D<sup>2</sup> °sajāti for °m ajāti; A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> IO yathā for gatam. c. A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> tathā for yathā.

In D1 the leaf containing kārikās 2-7 is missing.

- 3. c.  $K^1$  ghațărvahavac ca for ghațădivac ca. d. °tāv evan ni° for °tāv etan ni°.
- 4. b.  $V^g$  ° $k\bar{a}$ śoda° for ° $k\bar{a}$ ś $\bar{a}da$ °. c and d are omitted in  $V^g$ . d.  $M^e$  jiva for jivā.
  - 6. a. For it K1 nūparāgasamasmāc ca; Vn os tu for sca.
- 7. c.  $V^{\mathfrak{g}}$  naivanmanah for naivātmanah d.  $V^{\mathfrak{g}}$  °rāvayau for °rāvayavau. c and d are omitted in  $V^{\mathfrak{g}}$ ,

- 8. b. A<sup>1</sup> gagamanam for gaganam; A<sup>2</sup> malino for malinam.
- 9. c. All sthitau for sthitaḥ in V<sup>g</sup>. c-d. V<sup>g</sup> Jh °rīreṣu hy ākā°, A¹ V<sup>n</sup> °rīreṣu ākā° (but on margin °rīreṣu ākā°) for °rīreṣu ākā°. d. A² °vicakṣaṇaḥ for °vilakṣaṇaḥ.
- 10. b.  $A^1 A^2 B^1$  (on margin visa°) IO vivarjitāḥ for visarjitāḥ;  $V^g$  ātmā° for ātma° and °rjitaḥ for °rjitāḥ. d.  $A^1$  bhidyate for vidyate.
- 11. d.  $A^2$  svayam yā,  $A^e$   $B^1$   $B^2$  IO  $PU^1$   $PU^2$   $V^n$  kham yathā for sa-yathā;  $A^1$   $A^2$  kham samprakīrti°,  $D^1$   $D^2$   $V^n$  kham prakāśi° for samprakāśi°.
- 12. d. 10 °kāśapra° for °kāśaḥ pra°; V<sup>a</sup> prakāśaṃ for prakāśitaḥ.
- 13. a.  $A^2$  °tmāno for °tmano°,  $A^1$  ajanyatvam for ananyatvam. c.  $A^3$  10 bhidyate for nindyate. d.  $A^3$   $B^2$  C  $D^1$   $D^2$   $M^c$  eva for evam.
- 14. c. Ch. gaunatvam for gaunam tan. d.  $A^1 A^2 B^1 B^2 D^1 D^2$  IO JN PU $^1$  PU $^2$  V $^g$  V $^n$  hi na for na hi.
  - 15. a. A¹ A² °lingais tu for lingadyaiḥ. b. A² voditā for coditā.
  - 17. a. A² susi° for svasi°; A³ sumiddhāvadāvasthāstu for a.
  - 18. b. sad for tad. c. 10 ubhayatā for ubhayathā.
  - 19. c. °māno for °māne.
  - 21. b. yathā for tathā. See IV. 7b.
  - 22. d. A² sthasya viniścitam for sthasyati niścalah.
  - 23. a. K² bhūto 'bhuta' for bhūtato 'bhuta'.
  - 24. a. A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> cāśrīyāt for cāmnāyād.
  - 25. c. A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> kas to enam for ko no enam.
- 26. c and d are omitted in A<sup>2</sup>. The examination of K<sup>2</sup>, shows that the order of the kārikās Nos. 25, 26 and 27 is actually the same as in other MSS, but owing to a mistake of the scribe in copying the commentary that order has been changed, they being copied as Nos. 25, 27 and 26 respectively.
  - 27. a and b are omitted in  $A^2$ .
  - 28. c. A1 C D1 D2 P V" suto for putro.
- 31. a. A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> °mukha° for °dṛśya°; B<sup>1</sup> sarvaṃ for dvaitaṃ. c. A<sup>2</sup> manasā for manaso; B<sup>2</sup> unmanī° for amanī°.

- 32. c.  $A^2$  amanaskam for amanastām. d.  $D^2$  grāhyabhā° for grāhyābhā°.
- 33. b.  $A^1$   $A^2$  j $\tilde{n}$ eya $\tilde{m}$  bhi $^{\circ}$  for j $\tilde{n}$ ey $\tilde{a}$ bhi $^{\circ}$ ; pracak $\tilde{s}$ yate for pracak $\tilde{s}$ ate.
  - 34. c. A1 pravārah for pracārah.
- 35. a. Ch susuptau for susupte. b.  $V^g$  susuptasya ni° for susupte tan ni°;  $A^1$   $A^2$  na ni° for tan ni°.
  - 36. c-d. K¹ sarvajñopacāraḥ for sarvajñaṃ nopacāraḥ.
- 37. a.  $A^1$   $A^2$  °bhimānavimataḥ, IO  $V^n$  °bhilāṣavigataḥ for °bhilāpavigataḥ. b.  $V^g$  °mujjhitaḥ for °mutthitaḥ. d.  $A^1$  'bhavaḥ for 'bhayaḥ.
- 38. b. B² citā for cintā. c-d. A¹ jñāyam ajñātiḥ, A² jñāyanajñātiḥ for jñānam ajāti.
- 39. a. IO V" "yogo nāmāyam, A¹ A² "yogī nāmāyam, PD "yogo nāmaiṣaḥ for "yogo vai nāma. d. A¹ bhayadarśataḥ, A² tattvadarśinaḥ for bhayadarśinaḥ.
- 40. a.  $A^1$  IO nigraho yat tad,  $A^2$  nigraho yat tam for nigrahāyattam.
  - 43. b. A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> °bhogaṃ for bhogān.
- 44. b. PU¹ samayet for śamayet. d. B² samam prāptam, all others samaprāptam for śamaprāptam (= °t śama°) in VeS, § 33 and supported by Vidvanmanorañjanī; C vicālayet for cālayet.
- 45. a. VeS with Subodhinī and Vidvanmanorañjanī, loc. cit., rasaṃ for sukhaṃ. c. A¹ A² niścitāṃ ci°, lO niścitaṃ ci°, B² niścaraṃś ci° for niścarac ci°.
- 46. b. A¹ A² PU¹ manaḥ for punaḥ. c. A¹ aniṅgita°, A² ʿanaṅgita°, B¹ D² aliṅgana° for aniṅgana°. d. K M c tathā for tadā.
  - 47. d. A1 A2 sa sarvajñah parikșite for sarvajñam paricaksate.
  - 48. b. B¹ sambhāvo for sadbhāvo.

### Colophon:

B¹ PU² iti śrīgovindabhagavatpūjyapādaśiṣyasya paramahaṃsaparivrājakācāryasya śaṅkarabhagavataḥ kṛtāv āgamaśāstravivaraṇe advaitākhyaṃ tṛtīyaṃ prakaraṇaṃ samāptam. PU<sup>1</sup> iti śrīgauḍapādācāryaviracitam advaitākhyam tṛtīyam prakaraṇam.

 $\mathsf{V}^q$  āgamašāstre advaitākhyam tṛtīyam prakaraṇam samāptam.

V" gauḍapādīye advaitanirṇayo nāma tṛtīyaṃ prakaraṇam.

#### Воок IV

- 1. c.  $A^1$  samviddha°,  $A^2$  sambhinna° for sambuddha°. d.  $PU^2$ °ntaram for varam.
  - 2. d. V<sup>g</sup> darśata° for deśita°.
- 3. a.  $V^{\sigma}$  jāta° for jāti°. b.  $B^{1}$  first sarva then corrected to kecid as in the text.
- 4. a. All excepting  $D^e$  GP  $M^e$  dvayā for 'dvayāḥ. d.  $A^iA^2$  na jātim,  $V^{\sigma}$  °ajātaṃ for ajātiṃ.
  - 6. d. A² martya nu for martyatām; A¹A² iṣyati for eṣyati.
- 7. a.  $D^1$  martye for martyam. b.  $D^1D^2$  mṛtyu° for martya°;  $A^1A^2$  Jh  $V^g$  yathā for tathā. See III. 21<sup>b</sup>.
- 9. a.  $A^1$  nisvābhāvikī for svābhāvikī. b. IO kṛtā,  $B^1$   $B^2$   $K^1$  GP Me  $V^o$  akṛtā,  $A^1$   $A^2$  amṛtā, Jh kṛtakā, C °py ākṛtā for °py akṛtā; Jh yathā for ca yā. c.  $A^1$  °ś ceti,  $A^2$  sveti,  $A^3$  °s seti for seti.  $K^1$  reads only d omitting other lines altogether.
- 10. b.  $A^1 A^2$  sarva° for sarve. d.  $A^1 A^2$  tanmayā api for tanmanīṣayā.

It is to be noted that in D1 kārikās from 10 to 53 are wanting.

- 11. d.  $B^1$  nityam bhinnam for bhinnam nityam;  $A^1$   $A^2$  yat for tat.
- 12. a.  $A^1$   $A^3$   $A^e$   $B^1$   $B^2$   $M^e$   $D^2$   $V^n$  yady ananyatvam,  $A^2$  yayam ananyatvam,  $V^n$  yad anyatvam for yad ananyatvam. As the word yadi occurs in b here in a one should read yad as actually found in  $V^g$  though it reads in b tava for yadi.
- 13. c-d. A<sup>2</sup> °mānas tasya vyavathā for °mānasya na-vyavasthā. d. V<sup>a</sup> prajāyate, PU<sup>1</sup> PU<sup>2</sup> prasajjate for prasajyate.
  - 14. a. A<sup>2</sup> °di samam for °dīḥ phalam. IO omits the kārikā.
- 15. b.  $V^g$  ādihetuḥ for ādir hetuḥ;  $A^1 A^2 IO$  phalaṃ ca yat for phalasya ca. d.  $A^1$  putra for putrājo.

- 16. b.  $V^g$  °eşitah,  $B^1$   $K^1$  °işitavyah for °eşitavyah. d.  $A^2$  vişayāvat for vişāṇavat.
  - 17. a. B² phalātanupa° for phalād utpa°. b. A¹ A² to for te.
- 18. b.  $A^1$  hetuḥ,  $A^2$  hetuṣu for hetutaḥ; C Jh phalāsiddhiḥ for phalasiddhiḥ. c.  $A^1$   $A^2$  paraṃ tat for katarat.
- $B^2$  gives the number of the kārikā as 16 instead of 18 and henceforth the scribe counts the following kārikās accordingly, *i.e.*, 17, 18, etc.
- 19. a. A² atrokti° for aśakti°; A¹ A² °pavijñānam for °parijñānam. d. A¹ A² °jāti for °jātih; A¹ °vāpitā for °dīpitā.
- 20. b. A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> °tamo for °samo; A<sup>e</sup> A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> A<sup>3</sup> B<sup>1</sup> B<sup>2</sup> D<sup>1</sup> IO PU<sup>1</sup> PU<sup>2</sup> V<sup>g</sup> V<sup>n</sup> saḥ for naḥ in C D<sup>2</sup>. c. A<sup>e</sup> A<sup>2</sup> B<sup>1</sup> B<sup>2</sup> IO PU<sup>1</sup> PU<sup>2</sup> V<sup>g</sup> V<sup>n</sup> hi for ca in A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> supported by Ś.
- 21. a. Gh °parapari° for °parāpari°. b. V" °dīpikam for dīpakam.
  - 22. a. 10 omits va after svato.
- 23. b. A<sup>e</sup> A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> A<sup>3</sup> B<sup>1</sup> B<sup>2</sup> D<sup>1</sup> IO M<sup>e</sup> PU<sup>1</sup> PU<sup>2</sup> cāpi for vāpi. d. PU<sup>1</sup> on the margin jātir for hy ādir.
- 24. d.  $A^1 A^2$  paratam nāsti nāma tā (the former °tāḥ for °tā) for the line;  $V^n$  °matām for matā.
- 25. a.  $A^1$   $A^2$  prajñapte for prajñapteh. b.  $A^1$  bhukti° for yukti°;  $A^2$  °anyathā dvayanāśatah for b;  $K^1$  bhūta° for yukti°. c and d are omitted in  $K^1$ .
- 26. a. V<sup>g</sup> °arthān for °artham. b. A² nābhāsam, V<sup>g</sup> arthābhāsas ta° for nārthābhāsam ta°. d. A² IO °bhāsam for °bhäsas; A¹ tata, C tathā for tataḥ.
- 27. a. A³ sahā for sadā. b. pañcasu for °ty adhvasu. c. A¹ viparyātsaḥ for viparyāsaḥ.
- 28. b. cittam for citta°. c.  $A^1$  jāti,  $A^2$  yānti for jātim. d.  $V^g$  te for khe and khe for te.
- 29. a. A² tasmād for yasmād. b. A¹ A² D² tathā for tataḥ. c. A² 'nyathā for °r anyathā.
- 30. c. A¹ anantabhāvādimato, A² anantatā vādimate, C D² anantatā ādimato for anantatā cādimato.

- 31. c-d. A² santyevi°, A³ D² santo vi° (in the latter between santo and vi° there is an avagraha mark above the line and it seems to have been struck off) for santo 'vi°; A² D² lakṣitā for lakṣitāh.
- 32. b. All excepting  $D^2$  vipratipadyate for 'pi pratipadyate. See II. 7.
- 33. a. All sarve dha° for sarvadha° in A¹; PU² mṛṣāḥ for mṛṣā. b. A² V nkāryasyā° for kāyasyā°. c. B¹ B² M V n saṃvṛtte for saṃvṛte.
- 34. a. A² jñātvā for gatvā. b. A² kālālaisyā° for kālasyà°. d. 10 darśe for deśe.
- 35. b.  $A^e$   $A^3$   $B^3$   $B^2$   $K^1$   $M^e$  sambuddho for prabuddho. c.  $A^2$   $D^2$  vãpi for cāpi.
  - 36. b. D<sup>2</sup> °s tadaréanāt for °sya daréanāt.
- 37. c.  $A^e B^1 B^2 PU^1 V^g$  °tvāt tu for °tvāc ca. d.  $A^1 A^2 D^2$  sajāga° for saj jāga°.
- 38(39). b.  $A^1$  tanmayā for tanmayaḥ. c.  $A^1$   $A^2$  dṛṣṭāc ca for dṛṣṭvā ca.
- 39(41). b.  $A^2$  °cintyāt for °cintyān. c. Gh yathā for tathā;  $A^1$   $A^2$  viparyāsam for viparyāsāt. d.  $A^1$   $A^2$  tatra ca for tatraiva.
  - 41(40), c.  $B^2$  sa for sac.
- 42. a. A² upālambhāt for upalambhāt. d. A¹ A² °ś ca satāṃ, B¹ °s trasyatāṃ for °s trasatāṃ.
- 43. a.  $A^1$  °s tv asatyam,  $A^2$  °s tu satām,  $D^2$  susatām,  $B^1$  °s trasyatām for °s trasatām. b.  $A^1$   $D^2$  te for ye;  $V^g$  first te then corrected to ye.
- 45. a. A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> vastvabhāsam for vastvābhāsam. d. A<sup>1</sup> šāntim, B<sup>2</sup> sāntam for šāntam; D<sup>2</sup> avyayam, V<sup>n</sup> sadvayam for advayam.
- 46. a-b. B² cittacintam for cittam evam. c. V<sup>n</sup> °m ajānanto. PU² jānanto, C vijāāto na for vijānanto. d. A¹ tapati, A² A³ tapanti for patanti.
- 47. d. All excepting B<sup>1</sup> C Jh PU<sup>1</sup> vijñanaspa° for vijñānam spa° 48. a. A<sup>c</sup> A<sup>3</sup> D<sup>1</sup> IO M<sup>c</sup> PU<sup>1</sup> PU<sup>2</sup> alātam for ālātam. In A<sup>1</sup> a and b are omitted, c. A<sup>1</sup> °māna vi° for °mānam vi°,

- A<sup>2</sup> reads c-d as a-b, and a-b as c-d with the following variants: c. ° $m\bar{a}na$  vi° for ° $m\bar{a}nam$  vi°, and °prajam for °m ajam.  $V^g$  is damaged here.
- 49. b.  $D^2$   $B^2$   $n\bar{a}bh\bar{a}sa$  for  $n\bar{a}bh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ ;  $A^3$   $A^2$   $A^3$  Kh Gh J N °ś cānyato for anyato. c-d.  $A^1$  nispandām  $n\bar{a}$ °,  $A^2$  nispandā na, Gh nispandan  $n\bar{a}$ ° for nispandān  $n\bar{a}$ °.
- 50. a-b. B² °nirgatālātā dra° for nirgatā alātāt te dra°. c-d. A¹ °vāsya nābhāsasthāvi° for °va syur ābhāsasyāvi°.
  - 51. c. A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> A<sup>3</sup> nispandam na for nispandān na.
- 52. a. K Jh °rgatā vijāā° for °rgatās te vijāā°; K Jh Me Ve °tā vijāānāt te, B¹ °tā vijāānas te, B² °tā vijāānā te, PU¹ °t te vijāānāt for °tās te vijāānād. b. A¹ A² A³ dravyatvam bhā° for dravyatvābhā°. c-d. A¹ °yogādānovittāḥ, A² yogād ato cittāḥ for °bhāvād yato 'cintyāḥ; A³ cintyā for 'cintyāḥ; A¹ A² hi for te.
  - 53. c. A<sup>2</sup> °m anyathābhā° for °m anyabhā°.
- 54. b.  $A^2 B^2 D^1 V^o$  căpi for văpi;  $A^3$  dharmajāh for dharmajam. c.  $A^2$  °jātih for °jāt m.
- 55. a.  $V^n$  yād dhetu°,  $PU^1$  yāva hetu° for yāvad dhetu°. c.  $D^1$   $D^2$  °hetuh for hetu°.
- 56. d. A<sup>e</sup> A<sup>3</sup> B<sup>1</sup> B<sup>2</sup> D<sup>1</sup> D<sup>2</sup> M<sup>e</sup> PU<sup>1</sup> V<sup>g</sup> V<sup>n</sup> saṃsāraṃ na prapadyate, A<sup>2</sup> saṃsāran nopapadyate for saṃsāro nopapadyate in A<sup>1</sup> and IO.
- 57. a. A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> svapnam for sarvam. b. A<sup>e</sup> B<sup>1</sup> B<sup>2</sup> M<sup>e</sup> PU<sup>1</sup> PU<sup>2</sup> nāsti tena vai for tena nāsti vai. c. All sadbhāvena for svabhāvena. d. A<sup>2</sup> nāsmi for nāsti.
- 58. b. All excepting  $V^n$  jāyante for samvṛtyā supported by S.
- 59. a.  $A^2$  °yā jātā° for °yād bījā°. c.  $A^1$   $A^2$  na sa for nāsau;  $A^1$  bocche° for cocche°.
- 60. a.  $A^1$  nādyeṣu,  $A^2$  nājyeṣu for nājeṣu. b.  $A^1$  śāśvatā nāsti dhīyate,  $A^2$  śāśvatāśāśvato'bhidhā for this line. c.  $V^n$  nyamūdyante vartante for na vartante.
- 62. a.  $V^{\sigma}$  tu for ca. b.  $A^1$   $A^2$   $B^1$   $D^1$   $D^2$  manah for cittam. c.  $V^{\sigma}$  tu for ca. d.  $A^1$  jāgram na,  $A^2$  jāgreņa for jāgran na,

- 63. a.  $A^1$   $A^2$  pracalan, C kvācaran for pracaran. b.  $A^1$  disam utthitān,  $A^2$  disamurcchitān for dasasu sthitān. c.  $A^1$  añjanān for aṇḍajān;  $B^2$  svapne for vāpi.
- 64. a. D¹ svapne for svapna°; A¹ A² °kiṃ na, A³ D¹ °kitta° for °citta°. b. A¹ A² bhidyante for vidyante. c. A² na dṛśya° for taddṛśya°, A¹ °m etedaṃ for °m evedaṃ. d. A¹ kiṃ ta°, A² kaṃ ta°, A³ D¹ kitta° for citta°; K¹ jāgrataś ci° for svapnadṛk ci°.
- 65. a.  $A^1$   $A^2$  varam for carañ. a-b.  $V^n$  tasmã dikṣu corrected to tac ca tyakṣu for jāgrad dikṣu. b.  $A^2$  dasmutthitān for daśasu sthitān. c.  $D^1$  cāpi for vāpi.
- 66. a. D¹ °kṣiṇīyās°, Vn °kṣaṇīyām° for °kṣaṇīyās°. b. A¹ bhidyante, A² bhidyanti for vidyate.c. A¹ dṛṣyam idam vedam for tad dṛṣyam evedam. d. B¹ jāgrac for jāgratas.
- 67. c. C ° dṛśyeta for ° dṛśye te. b. A¹ A² A³ B¹ B² C Ch D¹ D² G IO K M° PU¹ PU² V $^g$  ca for na. After this kārikā D² adds :

pramāṇaśūnyam ubhayam cittam caittam dvayam yataḥ | tanmatenaiva tac cittam tayaiva ca tad gṛhyate ||

There are different readings for which see S's commentary  $(A^e)$  from which it is taken. Here d is defective of metre.

- 68. d. Kh Gh N Jh na bhavanti for bhavanti na.
- 69.  $A^1$   $A^2$  omit it. In  $A^3$  it is not in the body but on the margin by a second hand. b.  $K^1$  mriyate jāyate for jāyate mriyate. d. Kh Gh N J na bhavanti for bhavanti na.
- 70. A<sup>2</sup> V<sup>n</sup> omit the kārikā. a. A<sup>1</sup> K<sup>1</sup> V<sup>n</sup> nimittako, B<sup>1</sup> B<sup>2</sup> nimittako for nimittako. b. A<sup>e</sup> D<sup>1</sup> D<sup>2</sup> M<sup>e</sup> vā for ca.
- 71. c.  $A^2$  ya etad  $u^\circ$  for etat tad  $u^\circ$ ;  $A^2$   $V^n$  sarvam,  $K^1$  patram for satuam.
- 72. a. For this  $A^1 A^2$  cittam spandati me sarvam. b.  $D^1 D^2$  grāhyam grā° for grāhyagrā°.
- 73. c. All paratantrābhi° for paratantro 'bhi°. d. For this  $V^n$  paramārthena nāsty asau. Then again it has c and d.

- 74. a.  $A^1$  °samvṛttāḥ for °samvṛtyā. b.  $A^2$  °rtho na for °rthena. c.  $A^e$   $A^1$   $A^2$   $A^3$   $B^1$   $B^2$   $D^1$   $D^2$   $V^g$   $V^n$  paratantrā° for paratantro'° in K  $M^e$ .
- 75. c.  $V^g$  dvayābhāsam for dvayābhāvam. d.  $A^1A^2$  tannimitto for nirnimitto.
- 76. a.  $PU^1$  labhyate for labhate. c.  $A^2$  tam for tadā. d. hetabhāve for hetvabhāve.
  - 77, c. A<sup>2</sup> pūrvasya for sarvasya.
- 78. a.  $A^2$  satyam for satyām. b. For this  $A^2$  hetunyapyagate bruban;  $V^n$  hetu thag°, IO hetuprathag for hetum pṛthag°;  $V^n$  °nāpnuyāt, others °nāpnuvan for nāpnuvat in  $D^2$ . c. All excepting  $A^2 V^n$  tathā for tadā;  $A^c$   $M^c$  kāmam for 'kāmam.
- 79. a.  $A^1$  °niveśyādbhih, IO °niveśyāddhih for °niveśad dhi. c.  $A^1$  yas tva°,  $A^2$  yat tva°,  $B^1$  vastvā°,  $V^n$  dvayā° for vastva°; all excepting  $A^1$  and  $A^2$  sa buddhvaiva,  $A^1$  subuddhyaiva,  $A^2$  subudhyeva for sa buddhvaiva;  $A^1$  adds ca after buddhvaiva. d.  $A^1$  na niva°,  $A^2$  hi niva°,  $V^n$  ca niva° for viniva°.
- 80. b. Gh niścalam for niścalā. c.  $A^3 D^1 V^g$  sā for sa;  $A^1 A^2 V^n$  tu for hi. d. K M° svāmya° for sāmya°;  $V^n$ °jadvayam for °jam advayam.
- 81. a.  $A^2$  unnidram for anidram. b.  $A^1$   $A^2$  prabhāvam for prabhātam. c.  $A^2$  vibhānto for vibhāto. d.  $A^c$   $B^1$   $V^g$  dharmo dhātusva°, Ch dharmo dhātum sva° for dharmo dhātuh sva°.
- 82. a.  $A^1$   $A^2$  āśrayate for āvriyate. b.  $A^2$  va vriyate,  $B^2$  vriyate,  $D^2$  vā vriyate for vivriyate;  $A^1$  tadā for sadā. c-d. For this  $A^1$   $A^2$  IO yasya dharmasya grahaṇaṃ bhagavān api so 'śnute.
  - 83. b. V<sup>g</sup> vai for vā. c. A¹ A² °bhāsair for °bhāvair.
- 84. a. A³ catasro for catasra; A¹ A² °ś ca, B¹ °su for °s tu; C °ś ca tatparāyā° for °ś catasra etā°. b. A³ gṛhai° for grahai°; C °s tāsām for °r yāsām.
- 85. a. D² kṛṣṇakṛṭāṃ (corrected by a second hand to sarvajñatāṃ) sarvāṃ for sarvajñatāṃ kṛṭṣṇāṃ. b. A¹ agrayaṃ, D¹ D² avyayam for advayam. c. A¹ annā° for anā°.

87. a.  $A^1$  avastu,  $A^2$  suvastu for savastu. c and d are omitted in  $K^1$ .

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- 88. a.  $V^n$  °palam for °palambham.
- 89. a. B<sup>1</sup> dvividhe for trividhe. b. D<sup>1</sup> vindate, D<sup>2</sup> vidate for vidite.
- 90. a.  $A^1$   $A^2$  °jñeyasya vākyāni, IO °jñeyāpavākyāni for °jñeyāpyapākyāni.  $\acute{a}$ .  $D^2$  °lambho° for °lambha°.
- 91. a.  $A^1 A^2 A^3$  °vijñeyāḥ for °vaj jñeyāḥ. a-b. Ch reads sarve before jñeyāḥ. b. All sarve dharmā excepting  $A^1 V^n$  which read sarvadharmā. c.  $V^n$  ca for hi.
- 92. b. All sarve dharmāh excepting V<sup>o</sup> which reads sarva-dharmāh.
- 93. b.  $A^2$  prakṛtau va for prakṛtyaiva;  $A^2$  J sunirmitāh,  $V^g$ , suniścitāh for sunirvṛtāh. c.  $A^2$   $V^g$  sarvadha° for sarve dha°. d.  $A^1$   $A^2$  śyāmaṃ for sāmyam;  $A^2$  °radām for °radam. For d  $B^2$  prakṛtyaiva sunirvṛtāḥ repeating c and d as in the text.
- 94. c.  $A^1$  vedabhinnāḥ,  $A^2$  vedābhinnāḥ,  $V^n$  bhedaniṣṭhā for bhedanimnāh.
- 95. a. A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> ajam for aje; A<sup>1</sup> sāmyam for sāmye. b. A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> vipaścitam, IO viniścitaih for suniścitāh.
- 96. a.  $A^1$  ajetyojam,  $M^e$  aje 'py ajam for ajesv ajam;  $D^2$  ajam krāntam for asamkrāntam.  $D^1$  and  $D^2$  add here sarvabhūtātmabhūtasya sarvabhūtahitasya ca which is found in S's commentary on the preceding kārikā.
- 97. a. IO vaidharme for vaidharmye. d.  $A^2$  udāharaṇe for utāvaraṇa $^\circ$ ;  $D^1$   $^\circ$ varaṇā $^\circ$  for  $^\circ$ varaṇa $^\circ$ .
- 98. c. A¹ budhās, A² buddhas for buddhās; A¹ yuktā, A² yukta for muktā. d. A² budhyanti, ĬO budhyante for budhyanta.
- 99. a.  $A^1$  budhasya for buddhasya. b.  $A^1$  no manah,  $A^2$  first bodhinah then corrected to vyāpinah,  $D^1$   $D^2$   $K^1$   $M^e$   $PU^1$  tāpinah,  $A^e$  tāpi(yi)nah for tāyinah. c. All excepting  $A^1$   $A^2$  sarve dha for sarvadha. d.  $A^1$  budhena for buddhena.
- 100. a.  $V^n$  durdasam for durdassam. b.  $A^1$  syāmam for sāmyam;  $A^2$  oradām for oradam. d.  $A^1$  manah kurmo,  $A^3$  manaskurmo,  $A^2$   $D^2$   $V^n$  namah kurmo for namaskurmo.

Colophon:

 $A^1$   $A^2$  ity upadeśagranthe 'lātaśūntyākhyaṃ prakaraṇaṃ samāptam.

A<sup>3</sup> adds to the above only caturtham after prakaranam.

B¹ B² iti śrī govindabhagavatpūjyapādaśiṣyaśaṅkarabhagavataḥ kṛtāv āgamaśāstravivaraṇe alātaśāntākhyaṃ caturthaṃ prakaraṇaṃ samāptam (B² sampūrṇam).

D<sup>1</sup> D<sup>2</sup> iti śrīgauḍapādabhagavataḥ kṛtau āgamagranthe upadeśagranthe vedāntamūle gauḍapādīyaṃ caturthaṃ prakaraṇam.

IO ity alātākhyam caturtham prakaraņam upanisat samāptam (sic). siva siva ... (17 times).

K1 iti māņdūkyopanisadgaudapādavyākhyāne.

PU<sup>1</sup> iti śrīmadgauḍapādācāryakṛtau māṇḍūkyavārttike alātaśāntyākhyam caturtham prakaraṇam samāptam. prakaraṇacatuṣṭayātmakam śāstram sampūrṇam.

PU<sup>2</sup> iti śrīgovindabhagavatpūjyapādaśiṣyasya śrīśaṅkarabhagavataḥ kṛtāv āgamaśāstravivaraṇe alātaśāntyākhyaṃ caturthaṃ prakaraṇaṃ samāptam.

 $\mathsf{V}^g$  iti śrīgauḍapāda-āgamaśāstre alātaśāntyākhyam caturthaprakaraṇam samāptam.

 $V^n$  iti śrigaudapādīye upadeśagranthe alataśāntyākhyacaturthaprakaranam.

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68, 153; synonymous with

vijñāna, q.v.—mātra, 73, 86. — tā, cxxxvii, cxxxviii, cxlii. 73, 187, 188; vyavasthāna (jñāna), 73. vijñāna, P. viññāna, conscious-

ness, cxxxii, cxxxiii, cxlii, 68, 73, 85, 87, 154-57; there is only it, and nothing else. 153; utpannapradhvamsi, 85; nimittālambana, viṣayavaicitryasangalakṣaṇa, 85; synonymous with ālaya, citta, ceṣṭā, tribhava, manas, vikalpa, vijñapti, 68, 153-154, as well as with jñapti.—

nirvāṇa, extinction of, is puruṣārtha, 82, 81;—pariṇāma, transformation of, 87;—vāda, cxxxi, cxxxii, cxlii, 86, 136; —spandita, vibration of, 155.

nirodha, suppression and

vidyā, one of the tattvas in the Pāśupata system, 35. viparyāsa, false notion, 136,

137.

vipranāśa, disappearance, 162. vibhu; all-pervading, 1, 4. vibhūti, expansion, 3; manifestation, 35.

vivacana, synonym, cxxxx.

Vivartavāda, the doctrine maintaining that the appearance of the universe is imposed on Brahman, cx.

viśārada, scholar, bold, 207. Viśiṣṭādvaitavāda, cix, cx.

viśva, the embodied self in the waking state, lxxxxiv-lxxxxviii, cii, cxiv, 1, 2, 4-6, 9, 11, 12, 31.

visaya, field of activities, 69,

187; object of senses, 31. vihāra, field of activity, 69, 187.

vṛttikṣaya, loss of the action of the mind, 82.

vrddhasammati, approval of the old teachers, lxix.

veda-pāraga, 44. vedapāra-ga, 44.

vevacana (P.), S. vivacana, q.v. Vedānta, xlvi, lxxxiv, 44, 101, 175, 214.

vesārajja (P.), S. vaišāradya, q.v. vaitathya, unreality, ciii, 15. 16, 47. vaišāradya, P. vesārajja, intrepidity; derivation and meaning of; four-fold, 206-208.

Vaiśvānara, belonging to all men, lxxxxv, lxxxxvi, c, ci.

vyaya, change, 158. vyayadāna, purification, 103, .

129. vyavahāra, common use, 129.

—naya, practical point of view, 162;—satya, empirical truth, 162, as upāya, means, 175.

vyāvahārika satya, empirical truth, 175, 178.

śakti, one of the tattvas in the

Pāśupata system, 35; energy, 91, 121-123; cannot be established in the coming into being of anything 123.—mat, one with, 91. No difference between śakti and śaktimat.

saṃkleśa, impurity, 129, 130. śama, equanimity, 77.—prāpta, one that has reached, 77.

santi, peace, 75.

śarad, autumn, 207.

91.

śārada, timid, not bold, 207.

śāradya, P. sārajja, timidity, 207, 308.

śātīra ātman, incorporated soul, lxxxxii, lxxxxviii.

śāstra, Chinese lun, Tib. bstan.bcos.lxii.

śāśvata, eternal, always existing, cxxv, cxl, 160.—aśāśvatābhidhā, appellation of eternal and non-eternal, 164.—vāda the theory of eternity, cxliv, 162.

siva, one of the tattvas in Pāsupata system, 35; calın, 50. sadā°, one of the tattvas in Pāsupata system.

Suddhādvaitavāda, the theory of the Pure Monism, cx. śuddhi-aśuddhi, purity and

impurity, 104.

śūnya, 47.—tā, 47, 189, 211. —praveśa, mahā-, 95.

śramana brāhmana, 194.

śrutiprasthāna, the Course of Revelation, ciii.

Śresihayāna, same as Mahāyāna, 199.

ṣaḍviṃśa, consisting of twentysix, the philosophical system of Patañjali, 35.

samvitti, consciousness, 86.

samviti, covering, i.e., empirical truth, 161, 163, 173, 175.

—satya, empirical truth, 162. See kalpitasamviti, satya.

saṃsāra, 141, 143, 160, 162, 205.

sakaṣāya, with passions, 77.

sakkāyadiṭṭhi (P.),S.satkāyadṛṣṭi, the theory of individuality, 26-27.

saṃkleśa, impurity, 129, 130. 131.—upalabdhi, experience of, 131, 132.

saṃkhyā, understanding, 129. sa-ce (P.), in the sense of tac

cet. See sa-yathā, sa-yadi. 55. samjñā, consciousness, 96; designation, 129.—veditanirodha, a samādhi in Buddhism, 96, 99, 100. See saññāvedayita° S. samjñā°, q. v., 96, 99, 100. According to Chinese P. sammā°, S. samyak° for saññā°.

sati (P.), S. smṛti, meditation.

sat, existent, not arising from the existent or the existent, cxxi, 147-148.

satkāyadışţi, P. sakkāyadiţţhi, g.v.

satkāryavāda, the theory that the effect exists in its cause, 101, 102; Buddhist views on, 101.

sattva, one of the constituents of Prakṛti in the Sānkhya system, 31; people.—avatāra, causing the descent of, or leading the, 150.—paripāka, the act of maturing the, 200.

- satya, truth, 162; vyavahāra°, practical; paramārtha° or pāramārthika°, transcendental, 162, 175, 178; prātibhāsika°, existing in appearance, 178; vyāvahārika°, 162, 175,
- 178; saṃvṛti°, empirical, 162. sadbhāva, 161.
- sanimitta, with (objective) cause, 131.
- sanirvāņa, extinct, cxxxvi, 81. santati, continuance, cxli. nityatā, eternity as continu-
- ance, exliv.
  sandhi, = abhisandhi, intention,
  150.
- sama, always in the same condition, 73, 184, 185.—tā, 49, 72, 73, 194;—prāpta, 78,

-See samaprāpta.

- samādhi, intense abstract meditation, 70-72, 74. vajropama°, thunderbolt like, 307.
- sambuddha, perfectly understood, 83.
- sambhava, origination, 63, 115; is not of the non-existent from the existent, 147; possibility, 171.
- sambhūti, birth, 63; various explanation of, 64.
- sammuti (P.), S. sammati, general consent, 162.—satya, truth by, 175.

- sa-yathā, in the sense of tad yathā. See sa-ce, sa-yadi.
- sa-yadi, See sa-ce, sa-yathā.
- sarva, all.—jña, knower of, omniscient, 70;—tā, tva, 194, 195, 198, 199. sarvajñatva—vāda, cxxxxv. sarvabīja, seed of all. 136;—ka. 188.
- sahaja, innate, 111.
- samvita, pertaining to samviti, g. v., 178.
- sāmsiddhika, self-existent,
- Sāṅkhya, 101, 102.
- sādhyasama, that which is yet to be proved, 125.
- sāmānyadharma, common quality, 9.
- sāmya,=sama, q. v., 208, 217.
- sukhasthiti or sukhāvasthiti, pleasant state, 97.
- sunirvita, perfectly merged in nirvāṇa, 204, 205.
- susupta, referring to Prājāa, lxxxxvi; deep sleep, 34.—stha, one in the state of deep sleep, lxxxxviii.
- susupti, deep sleep, 34. sütraprasthāna, the Course of
- Sūtras, civ. sṛṣṭi, creation, 37.
- stabdhībhāva, stiffness, 78.

sthiti, continued existence, 37; the position, of citta, 186; the niscala or unwavering position of the citta is the field of the Buddhas, 186.

sthānidharma, 20.

sthira, cxxxix. See dhruva. spandita, vibration, cxxv.

sparsa, P. phassa, touch or contact, 99; is three-fold, ānīñjya, ākiñcanya and ānimitta, 99.—vihāra, (for P. phāsu°, Tib. bde. gnas. pa), pleasant state.

smṛti, meditation, 45; codes of law handed down memoriter, 45.—prasthāna, the Course of Tradition or Remembered Texts, ciii.

svadhā, kāra, the exclamation svadhā, 46.

svapna, dream, cxix, 6, 7, 15— 19, 38, 66, 67, 143-146, 165, 166, 295.—ātman, in the state of, lxxxxviii.—drs, dreamer, 166. svabhāva, nature, no origination of, through cause and condition, 110; cannot be artificial, 110; is always non-origination, 111; refutation of, 140. svarūpa, natural state, cxxxvii. svalakṣaṇa, own characteristic, 89.

svastha, resting in itself, exxxvii, 81.

svābhāvika, natural, 111.

hetu, cause; nirvartaka, bringing about, 128; nimitta, objective, 184.—pratyaya, condition, 176.;—sāmagrī, totality of, 179.—phala, effect of cause, 159; their relationship is not possible, 115-121;—bhāva, causation, cxxiv; not possible, 125, 158;—āveśa, adherence to, 159, 160;—udbhava, arising of, 159;—vyavasthā, a settled rule of, there is none.

heya, that which is to be abandoned, 199.

126.

### ADDENDA ET CORRIGENDA

### INTRODUCTION

- P. xlix, note 2. Certainly this reason disyatva is not in our text, but in S a n k a r a 's own commentary (II. 4: disyatvād iti hetuh). It may be noted here in this connexion that in the later Vedāntic works disyatva is one of the main hetus for inferring that the outward world is false (Advaitasiddhi, Advaitamañjarī ed., p. 2: vimatam mithyā disyatvād).
- P. lxxix. As regards the commentary on the NUTU, I am thankful to Sachindra Nath Ghose of Benares for his kindly sending me a transcription of it made by himself in Bengali characters from a MS in the library called Mālatīsāradāsadana of Ray Govinchand ji in Benares. It is not complete and runs up to pratyagekarasah of the original text in the ninth and the last section. Yet, it contains a separate loose page in which the last portion of the commentary is copied. Here in some of the colophons it is called Vivaraṇa, while in others Vivṛti. According to the present MS this commentary is by Gauḍapāda as is quite clear from the colophons, some reading Śrīgauḍapādīya and others ośrīśukayogīndraśiṣyaśrīgauḍapādācāryakṛti. It begins thus:

śrīgaņeśāya namaḥ. śrīnṛsiṃhāya namaḥ.

nirastasakalānarthaparamānandarūpiņe | nṛsiṃhāya namaskurmah sarvadhīvṛttisākṣiṇe || 1

Intro.

kriyate 'lpadhiyām tasmāt kṣantavyam kṣatam uttamaiḥ || 3 iha pūrvasmin granthe nṛsiṃhākārabrahmaviṣayā nirupādhikabrahmavidyāphalādhigatā tathā hy uktaṃ

sarvasamsārahīno 'ham tān nato 'smi gurūn sadā | 2

yatpādābjarajolešasamparkat sahasā sakīt

tāpanīyarahasyārthavivṛti[r] leśato mayā |

v ā r t t i k a k r d b h i ḥ nrsimhabrahmavidyaiṣā vyākṛtā jūānasiddhaye |

And it ends thus:

tāpanīyarahasyārthadīpikā timirāpahā |
gurvanugrahalabdhaiṣā satām astu sukhāptaye ||
saccidānandapūrṇ[āya] pratyagekarasātmane |
tejase mahate bhūyān namaḥ puṃsiṃharūpiṇe ||
yasya saṃsmṛtimātreṇa taranti bhavasāgaram |
taṃ nato 'smi guruṃ bhaktyā dhiyā vācā ca
karmanā ||

iti śrīmatparamahaṃṣaparivrājakācāryaśrīmacchukamunindraśiṣya-śrīmadgauḍapādamuniviracite uttaratāpanīyavivaraṇe navamaḥ khaṇḍaḥ, śubham astu, śrīlakṣmīnṛṣiṃho rakṣatu mām, nṛṣiṃhārpaṇam astu.

tāraņe vatsare māsi śrāvaņe 'sitapakṣage |
pañcamīrevatīyukte tithau kumbheśapattane ||
nṛsiṃhatāpanīyākhyaṭīkāṃ gauḍābhidhāṃ satīm |
vyāseśvaro 'likhat svast[y]ai
nṛsiṃhas tena nuṣṭha(tuṣya?)tām ||

It is interesting to note that the following passage from this Vivarana (pp. 25-26) is identical with that in

Ś a ń k a r a 's commentary on the MāU, 11, excepting a few unimportant variations as noted in the foot-notes:

mīyate iva hi viśvataijasau prājñena pralayotpattyoḥ praveśanirgamābhyām prastheneva yavāḥ. tathonkārasamāptau punaḥ punaḥ prayoge ca praviśya nirgatāv ivākārokārau makāre 'ntye 'kṣare ekībhūtāv ivākārokārau.

tathā susupte prājñe viśvataijasau<sup>0</sup>. minoti jāgradādiyāthātmyam jānātīty arthah. apītiś ca jagatkāranātmā ca

P. cxxxv. Regarding the identity of citta and Brahman, see YV, III. 64. 31; 65. 3; 66. 14; 96. 56, 66, 73; IV. 35. 20-23, 54. 20. From these verses we can gather that jīva, cit, ātman, brahman, śūnya, nairātmya, etc., are the different expressions of citta. From the same authority (III. 122. 35) we also

know that such names are made by the authors of sastras in order to supply some terms required by them:

šāstrasaṃvyavahārārthaṃ tasyāsya vitatākṛteḥ | cidbrahmātmeti nāmāni kalpitāni kṛtātmabhiḥ ||

P. cxxxvi, note 8. For manaḥkṣaya there is manaḥ-parikṣaya in YV, III. 116. 13. It has also manonāśa (III. 95. 35-36) and manaḥpraśamana (III. 122. 27).

Ś omits it.

Intro.

bhavati.

Ś omits it.
 Ś nirgacchata.

<sup>3</sup> For susupte "taijasau" S has visvataijasau susuptakāle prājāe.

<sup>5</sup> minoti ha vā idam sarvam jagad.

## BOOK I

- 5. It is quoted in SV, p. 27.
- 6. On the creation from Prāṇa see KtU, III. 3 and BS, I. 1. 23, 28. Here in the kārikā we have an Idealistic view (Vijñānavāda).
- 9. For āptakāma see BU, IV. 4. 6. For bhogārtham sistih see Śrīdharasvāmin on BP, III. 7. 4: avidyopādher jīvasya bhogārtham īśvarah sistyādi karoti.
  - 10. See BU, IV. 2. 4; 4. 22; 5. 15.
- 12. The word sarvadṛś in sense is the same as sarvajña 'omniscient' (III. 36). His omniscience is, according to Ś a n k a r a (BS, I. 1. 4), on account of his capacity for all knowledge (sarvajñānaśaktimattvenaiva sarvajñatvam abhyupagantavyam), or owing to the fact that he is never dissociated from his intelligence, i.e., all-embracing knowledge (Op. cit., I. 3. 42: sarvajñatvalaksanayā prajñayā niyatam aviyogāt).

On this kārikā as well as on I. 15 see *Upadeśa-sāhasrī*, XVIII. 26.

13. In this and the following kārikās nidrā in sense is, in fact, suṣupta. Here nidrā is said to be bīja 'seed', i.e., origin, because nidrā being non-realization of truth is the cause of both dream and waking. See Upadeśasāhasrī, XVIII. 26 as quoted in NSi, IV. 43: suṣuptākhyaṃ tamo 'jñānaṃ bījaṃ svapnaprabodhayoḥ | ātmabodhāgnidagdhaṃ syād bījaṃ dagdhaṃ yathābhavam ||

This explanation of  $b\bar{\imath}ja$  slightly differs from the one given before on p. 6.

14. See I. 16; III. 35. 36; IV. 81. In the fourth state,

while nidrā means the laya or mūdhà 'infatuated' state of the mind, svapna indicates the state called vikṣepa 'distraction'. This state of Turya is the state of Brahman.

15. For b of the kārikā cf. YS, I. 10: abhāva-pratyayālambanā vṛttir nidrā. This kārikā is quoted in NSi, IV. 42.

16. This kārikā is quoted in MnU, I. 13, with the reading ajanmanidram for ajam anidram in c.

17. The following is quoted as from Gauda-pāda in Sankara's Viṣṇusahasranāma-bhāṣya, Mysore ed., p. 18:

yad yad dvaitam prapañcasya tan nivartyam hi cetasā | manovītimayam dvaitam advaitam paramārthatah ||

19. The Pranava-upāsana referred to here is wellknown in Upanisads, older and later alike (ChU, I. 1. 1. 4. 1; PU, V. 1-2; TU, I. 8. 1; MuU, II, 2. 6; MU. IV. 4. 37). Here a few words are necessary for the real significance of upāsana (sometimes upāsanā), which is enjoined (yuñjīta pranave cetah, I. 25) and described to some extent here by our author. The word upasana is derived, as well-known to all, from upa-\square \bar{a}s literally 'to seat near at hand (in order to honour or wait upon),' and figuratively 'to do homage, worship, be devoted to', etc. But in such Upanisadic texts as mano brahmety upāsīta (ChU, III. 18. 1), or, sa yo nāma brahmety upāste (Op. cit., VII. 1. 5), it has some special meaning. The first sentence quoted above does not mean 'One should worship the mind as Brahman,' nor do we understand from the second sentence 'He who worships the name as Brahman.' In both of the cases  $upa-\sqrt{as}$ 

or upāsana gives the sense of meditation (dhyāna). It is in the words of Ś a n k a r a a continuous flow of one and the same idea having an ālambana 'support' recommended by the scripture, unmixed with other ideas. (BS, IV. 1. 7: upāsanam nāma samānapratyayapravāhakaraṇam. See ChU, I. 1. 1 and our text, p. 48). The best ālambana for the upāsana of Brahman, as in the present case, is Om. We read in the KU, I. 2. 17:

etad ālambanam śrestham etad ālambanam param | etad ālambanam jñātvā brahmaloke mahīyate||

The meditation of Om as Brahman, just as the meditation of an image (pratimā) as Viṣṇu 'the allpervading one', is the means for the realization of Brahman. It is to be noted, according to Śaṅkara's school, that while Brahmajñāna leads one immediately and directly to mokṣa, Brahma-upāsana does not do so, it helps one in gradually attaining to it and to prosperity. Śaṅkara says, it effects the purity of the mind and making the truth clear thereby helps us in acquiring the knowledge of Brahman. Besides, there being an ālambana 'support' it is easy to make an upāsana.

It is to be further noted that there are two kinds of upāsana, that involving the contemplation of the Self (ahaṃgrahopāsana), and that which is symbolical or concerned with external symbols (pratīkopāsana). In the former, the Self, the Paramātman, is contemplated in his conditioned form (saguṇa) with the idea that 'I am he'. For instance, we read in the TA, VII. 6:

sa ya eşo 'ntarhıdaya ākāśaḥ, tasmin ayam puruşo manomayo 'mrto hiranmayah.

'It is that space within the heart. Here is the Person, formed of thought, undying and golden '.

Here the person (i.e., Paramatman) within the space of the heart with those qualities is to be meditated with the thought that 'I am the Person'.

But where a worldly or external thing which is other than Brahman is contemplated being regarded as a higher god or Brahman himself that contemplation or upāsana is symbolical (pratīkopāsana). For instance, in the case of the text, mano brahmety upasita (quoted above), the mind is to be contemplated as Brahman. So here is another instance of pratikopāsana. For details see BS. III. 3 and IV. 1.

Now with regard to our own case, Om is to be meditated as the Self, and so we have also here an instance of pratikopāsana. The three measures (mātrās) of Om are to be meditated as Viśva, Taijasa and Prājāa respectively. And that Om which has no measure (amātra), i.e., the measures of which are not considered separately, and which is thus immeasurable (amātra), or which, in other words, is with unlimited measure (anantamātra) is to be meditated as Turya.

It is said that in an upāsana one thing is to be viewed as another thing; for instance, here the first measure of Om, a, is to be regarded as Viśva. amounts to saying that these two things are identical. But how can this identity be possible? The answer is this that such identity is by no means actual, but owing to some common quality (sāmānyadharma) of the two the identity of which is intended. This is a well-known

practice among us. We say of a brave lad that he is a lion (simho māṇavakaḥ), though in fact he is not so. It is only on account of the common quality, bravery, of the lad and a lion that we identify them employing the phrase. Simply following this method of expression our teacher has shown some common qualities of the Purusa and Om (I. 19 ff.) owing to which their identity has been made possible. Let us remember here the following line of Yāska in his Nt, VII. 24: bahubhaktivādīni brāhmaṇāni bhavanti. It means that the Brāhmaṇas have a great deal of bhaktivāda. But what is bhaktivāda? Durgācāry a says in explaining the above line of Yāska: bhaktir nāma guṇakalpanā. tena kenacid guṇena brāhmanam sarvam sarvathā varņayati. tatra tattvam anvesyam. It says that bhakti means assumption or consideration of a quality by which a Brāhmana describes all things in all kinds of way. But the truth must be investigated there.

I. 20. Evidently the meaning 'subsequence' of the word utharsa as given in the translation (p. 10) is far-fetched. The explanation as offered in the Vivarana attributed to G a u d a p ā d a on the NUTU, 2 (see pp. 291 ff.) seems to be better. Besides 'excellence', the word utharsa means 'attracting' or 'pulling upwards'. Taking this last sense the Vivarana says that among the three components, a, u and m of Pranava a is guttural and u is labial. So while a is pronounced from the lower part (throat) of the mouth, u is done from the upper one (lips). Such being the case, in pronunciation u is, as it were, pulled upwards.

Or it may be that u is higher than a, because the former is manifested on the lips filling completely or stepping beyond the throat, and because it is manifested with an effort more than that required for the latter. Let the passage be quoted here as it is in the transcription (p. 25):

akārād utkarṣa ūrdhvam ākṛṣṭa iva hy ukāra [h] praṇave dṛṣyate. taijasaś ca viśvata [h]. svapnādiṣu akārata utkṛṣṭaḥ. uttamo vā ukāraḥ vyāptyatiśayād balātiśayāc ca. akārasthānam kaṇṭham vyāpya atikram [y?]a oṣṭhasthāne hi tasyābhivyaktiḥ. tenākārādhikavyāpṭimattvenokta ukāraḥ virāja iva hiraṇyagarbhaḥ. balātiśayatvam ca kharaprayatnavyaṅgyatvāt praṇavasthokārasya mandaprayatnavyaṅgyam akāram apekṣya.

The utkarsa 'excellence' of Taijasa in this respect in relation to Viśva is this that the former is nearer by one step than the latter to Turīya.

- 26. See MU, VI. 5; PU, V. 2: etad vai satyakāma param cāparam ca brahma yad omkārah.
  - 28. Note 1. Add *SU*, *III*. 13; *IV*. 17. Note 2. Read 21 for 22.

#### BOOK II

- 1. The phrase, āhur manīṣiṇaḥ, is often used not only in our text (II.5, IV. 54), but also in an Upaniṣad (KU, III.4) itself and the BG (XVIII.3).
- 4. It may be noted that *samvṛtatva* is referred to by Ś in his commentary on BS, III. 2. 3.

# 5. Cf. MnU, I. 8-11:

antar asminn ime lokā antar viśvam idam jagat | bahirvan māyayā bhāti darpaņe pratibimbitam || svapne svāntargatam viśvam yathā pṛthag avekṣyate | tathaiva jāgratkāle 'pi prapañco 'yam vivicyatām || svapne svasattaivārthānām sattā nānyeti niścitā | ko jāgrati viśeṣo'sti jaḍānām āśunāśinām || svapne prakāśo bhāvānām svaprakāśān na hītaraḥ | jāgraty api tathaiveti niścinvanti vipaścitaḥ || For prasiddha see Ś on BS, 1.1.22.

- 7. P. 20. l. 1. Read 'That for 'that.
  - 9-10. Cf. MnU, 1. 7-8.
- 21. P. 31, I. 17. For 6.3, 8.3 read 6—8.
  - 24. P. 34, l. 16. Read jyoti° or yoti°.
  - 32. P. 41, l. 1. Read kārikā for kānkā.
  - 34. For anyabhāva see IV. 53.

A piece of crystal which is naturally white becomes red in contact with a red flower, yet, it cannot be said that it is red either in its own nature (svabhāva) or in the nature of other (anyabhāva). It is true that under the circumstances it looks red, yet it is actually not so, it only appears to be so, for its innate whiteness does in no way change. See Śańkara on BS, III. 2. 11: na hi svacchaḥ san sphaţiko 'laktakādyu-pādhiyogād asvaccho bhavati, bhramamātràtvād abhinivesasya, upādhīnām cāvidyāpratyupasthāpitatvāt.

35. P. 43, l. 5. Read NPTU, NUTU and RUTU for NPU, NUU and RUU respectively, and  $\sqrt{paj-pa\tilde{n}j}$  for  $\sqrt{pajpa\tilde{n}j}$  in l. 10.

Book III

For the Prapañcavilayavāda showing the relationship between the karma- and jñāna-kāndas in connexion with niyoga one may be referred to Hiriyanna: Journal of Oriental Research, 1927, pp. 109 ff, and the original authorities cited therein.

36. The *smṛti* quoted here is *Vasiṣṭhasmṛti* or *Vasiṣṭha-dharmaśāstra*. Ś quotes here also the following couplet which is not traced:

couplet which is not traced:

yaṃ na santaṃ na cāsantaṃ nāśrutaṃ na bahuśrutam |

na suvṛttaṃ na durvṛttaṃ veda kaścit sa brāhmaṇaḥ ||

38. For the stanza, śūnyam ādhyātmikamo see AK, IX. 250. For paśya the reading is also paśyan.

### BOOK III

- 1. The upāsanā mentioned here may refer also to Praṇava-upāsana in I. 19 ff. See III. 16. For the true significance of upāsana or upāsanā see pp. 295 ff., and modify the Annotation here in accordance with it.
  - 3. See MnU, III. 9:

ghatākāśo mahākāśo ghatopādhikito yathā | dehopādhikito bhedo jīvātmaparamātmanoh || and III. 25-26:

dehendriyamanobuddhiprāṇāhaṃkārasaṃhatam || ātmasaṅkalanād ajñair ātmatvaṃ pratipādyate | vahnidhīḥ kāṣṭhalohādau vahnisaṃkalanād iva ||

According to Brahmadatta, one of the Samuccayavadin Vedantist, Brahman, has both origination (utpatti) and disappearance (laya). See Proceed-

ings and Transactions of the Fourth Oriental Congress, pp. 188-89; Śrībhāṣya, 1.4.2; Mahānārāyaṇopaniṣad, 1.4; ViP. VI.40.39.

4. Cf. BP, XII, 5.5:

ghate bhinne ghatākāśa ākāśah syād yathā purā | evam dehe mṛte jīvo brahma sampadyate punah ||

6. P. 52, I. 26. Read 11 for 12.

11. This kārikā supports Śańkara's second interpretation (idam tv iha vaktavyam°) refuting that of the Vṛttikāra in the Ānandamayādhikaraṇa of the BS, I. 1. 12-19. On this see MnU, III. 27-31 also:

deham annamayam kośam āviśyātmā prakāśate | sthūlo bālah kṛśah kṛṣṇo varṇāśramavikalpavān || prāṇakośe 'pi jīvāmi kṣudhito 'smi pipāsitah | samśito niścito manya iti kośe manomaye || vijñānamayakośastho vijānāmīti tiṣṭhati | ānandamayakoṣākhye tv ahankāre purākṛtaih || puṇyair upāsanābhiś ca sukhito 'smīti modate | evaṃ kañcukitaḥ kośaiḥ kañcukair iva pañcabhiḥ || paricchinna ivābhāti vyāpto 'pi parameśvaraḥ | 12. Cf. ChU, I. 9. 1, VIII. 14. 1; BS, I. 1. 22,

3. 41. 14. See RV, I. 164. 20; SU, IV. 6-7; MuU,

14. See RV, I. 164. 20; SU, IV. 6-7; MuU, Ill. 1. 1-3.

15. P. 58, l. 18. Omit IV.2.14.

16. P. 59, l. 14. Omit etc. 17. See IV. 5.

23. Gaudapāda says here that between the

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two statements in the scripture that which is with a reason is acceptable. Cf. S on BS, II. 1. 4:

yathā ca śrutīnām parasparavirodhe saty ekavaśenetarā nīyante evam pramāṇavirodhe 'pi tadvaśenaiva śrutir nīyeta. dṛṣṭasāmyena cādṛṣṭam artham samarthayantī yuktir anubhavasya samnikṛṣyate, viprakṛṣyate tu śrutir aitihyamātreṇa svārthābhidhānāt.

On reasoning (tarka) see S on BS, II. 1.11. With regard to yukti we may remember here what is said in YV, II. 18. 2-4 about the two śāstras, ārṣa 'derived from ṛṣis' and pauruṣā 'derived from men'. The author says that a śāstra, though it is a pauruṣa, deserves to be accepted, if it is reasonable. One must follow reason. A speech, if reasonable, must be accepted even from a child, but that which is not reasonable should be rejected like a piece of straw though it might be uttered even by Brahman, the creator. That man is certainly not wise who rejecting the beautiful water of the Ganges flowing before him drinks from a well thinking only that it belongs to his father:

api pauruṣam ādeyaṃ śāstraṃ ced yuktibodhakam |
anyat tv ārṣam api tyājyaṃ bhāvyaṃ nyāyaikasevinā ||
yuktiyuktam upādeyaṃ vacanaṃ bālakād api |
anyat tṛṇam iva tyājyam apy uktaṃ padmayoninā |
yo 'smattātasya kūpo 'yam iti kaupaṃ pibaty apaḥ |
tyaktvā gāngaṃ purasthaṃ taṃ ko na śāsty atigarhitam ||

<sup>27&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>. Read yujyate for jujyate.

<sup>29,</sup> P. 66, I. 19. Add the after with,

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30. Here is the Tibetan version:

gñis. min. yid. ni. rmi. lam. na | gñis. su. snan. ste. the. tshom med | de. bshin. gñid. kyis. ma. log. tshe |

P. 67. 1. 5. Read the two for a second.

31. For manodrśyam see cittadrśyam, IV. 28, 36, 77.

gñis, min. gñis, snan, the, tshom, med |

P. 67, l. 13. Read perceptible for perceived.

- 2. P. 68, I. 2. Read ViS for Vis. and add 38 after III.
  - 35. Note 1. Add 44, 46 after 42.
  - 36. Note 3. Add cf. sarvadrś, I. 12; IV. 84.
  - P. 70, 1. 6. Read *TAk* for TA.
    - 39. Read vai nāma for nāmaisa.
      46. P. 80, l. 24. Read buddha° for baddha°.
- P. 81, l. 13. S shows here the Buddhist views. On the next line read 549 for 587.

## BOOK IV

- 1. P. 86, last line. Read  $TA^{l}$  for  $TA^{1}$ .
- P. 89, l. 6. Add a after is, and sva before laksana° on l. 14.
  - P. 91, 11. 29, 32.° Read SāS for SS.

ete sahetukāh.

P. 92, note 30. On the word dharma quoted from KU see Glasenapp: Buddhism in Kathopanisad in the New Indian Antiquary, Vol. 1, No. 2, pp. 138 ff., and Stcherbatsky, Op. cit., p. 68 ff; SMV, pp. 136-7, See also MV p. 355: nāstīha sattva ātmā vā dharmās tv

- 2. The word asparsayoga is found at least once in a Buddhist work. See Bauddha Gāna O Dohā, Sāhityapariṣad Granthāvalī 55, 1323 B.S., p. 19. Here the Sanskrit tīkā which is not edited critically and full of mistakes reads referring to a yoga aspṛśayogotvāt for which the Tibetan version (Tanjur, Narthang, Rgyud, Tsi, 175°. 4) has mi. reg. pahi. sbyor. bahi. phyir. te clearly suggesting its Sanskrit equivalent asparśayogāt. The only notable difference between the two versions, Sanskrit and Tibetan, is this that while the former has aspisa the suggested reading in the latter is asparsa. But considering the uncritical way in which the edition of the Sanskrit text is prepared and the well-known occurrence of the word sparsa it naturally occurs to one's mind that the reading aspṛśa for asparśa is a misprint or a mistake of the scribe of the MS used for that edition. Another difference is the use of -tva in the Sanskrit text, which is not to be found in the Tibetan one. According to the former the latter should have been written sbyor. bahi. ñid. kyi for sbyor. bahi. But it is often found in Tibetan versions of Sanskrit texts that nid for -tva- (or eva) is not used even when it is necessary; on the contrary, it is employed when it is not required at all.
- 4. P. 102, l. 6. For our MS. Me and some read Me and some other.
  - 11. P. 113, I. 5. Read kāraņa for karaņa.
- 12. Note 1. Here 'elsewhere' refers to Variants, p. 237.
  - 20. P. 125, last line. Read cākramakah.

- 23. Note 1. PU actually has jātir in the margin for hyādir in d. Read here edition for editions.
  - P. 130, I. 31. Read AS for ASh.
  - 24. P. 132, note 3. Add 62 after 61 and omit 79.
    - 28. P. 138, l. 26. Read MuU for MU.
- 30. Note 1. The couplet is from VM, Simon Hewavitarane Bequest ed. p. 407 with the variant khandhānam ca paṭipāṭi in a as in Bhāratīya Vidyā Series ed., Part I, p. 282.
- 31. The first half of the kārikā is identical with that of YV, IV. 45. 45.
- 33°. In such cases (viz., IV. 10, 91-93) one may be inclined to read with some of the MSS (i.e., A<sup>1</sup>, A<sup>2</sup>, V<sup>9</sup>) sarvadharmāh for sarve dharmāh agreeing with Buddhist works.
- 38. Note 1. In b read pratibuddhavantah as in Gilgit Manuscripts, Vol. II, p. 100.
  - 42. P. 150, note 5. Read MSA for MS.
  - 51°. Read nispandāt for vijāānāt.
- 58. For the first half see IV, 57°. For d see LA, pp. 28-49: vicitrā hi yathā māyā drśyate na ca vidyate. See our text, p. 151, note 8. Read BA for BC on p. 164, 1. 5, and krtako for tanmayo on 1. 19.
  - 60°. See IV. 99.
  - 71. Note 2. It is a speech of Bhagavat.
    - 72°. See LA, II. 151-152: vijnānabījam spandate°.
    - 74. P. 177, l. 16. Read nāsti for nāstī-
    - 81°. Read vibhāto for vibhāti.
- P. 188, Note 2. For the meaning of the word parāviti see P. C. Bagchi: Studies in the Tantras, Calcutta University, 1939, pp. 87 ff.

- 83<sup>n-b</sup>. Read °asti-nāstīti nāsti-nāstīti° for °asti
- 84<sup>d</sup>. For sarvadrś cf. sarvajña (I. 12, III. 36) and sarvajñatā (IV. 85, 89).

On this see E. Obermiller (The Doctrine of Prajñāpāramitā, etc., p. 44): "When the Bodhisattva" has attained the highest of the Unimpeded Paths in the Path of Concentrated Contemplation, he is considered to have terminated his course of training in the path. This last moment of Concentrated trance called the 'thunderbolt-like' (vajropama samādhi) is characterized by the removal of the most subtle forms of defilement and of ignorance. It is simultaneous with the final momentary Illumination (ekaksana-abhisambodha), and the culmination of the Bodhisattva's intuition of the absolute. All the factors for the attainment of the Omniscience of the Buddha are now brought to accomplishment. Owing to this, the representation of the Absolute appears in its full light; the differentiation to subject and object ceases to exist, the accidental obscurations which had hitherto separated the Germ of the Absolute in the living being now completely vanish, and the Germ now coalesces with the Unique Ultimate Essence which is personified as the Cosmical body (dharmakāya) of the Buddha''.1

<sup>1 &</sup>quot;At the second moment we have the last Path of Deliverance (vimultimārga). At that time the double representation (i.e., of subject and object) disappears, and the object of Concentration (in its true aspect) becomes one with the knowledge cognizing it like one particle of water uniting with another (chu-la chu bshag-pa-ltar=jale jalaniksepavat). In the aspect of this intuition all the things cognizable in their varieties become directly perceived like a myrobalan (āmalaka) fruit on the palm of the hand (karatalāmalakavat)."

The special Omniscience which is peculiar only to the Buddha (sarva-ākāra-jñātā) is the knowledge of all the aspects of existence as being devoid of an independent separate reality and as not being liable to origination from the standpoint of the Absolute". Op. cit., p. 64.

See Vācaspatimiśra's Nyāyakanikā (Reprint from the Pandit), pp. 110, 147, 205.

- 90. See MSA, XIX, 56: pañcavidham hi vastu bodhisattvānām aprameyam. paripācyam vastu sattvadhātur aviśeṣeṇa. viśodhyam lokadhātur bhājanalokasamgṛhītaḥ. prāpyam dharmadhātuḥ. paripācanayogyam vineyadhātuḥ. samyagdeśanāvastu vineyopāyadhātuh.
  - 94. P. 206, note 2. Read Woods for Wood.
- P. 207, l. 13. The word śāradya actually occurs in Sanskrit as in parisacchāradya. It means sankoca 'shrinking'. In Tibetan for it we have bskumps. pa from skum. pa 'to contract.' See MV, p. 46; \$S, p. 296.
- 99. P. 212, note 2, l. 31. Read skyob. pa for skyb. pa.
  - 100. For durdarsa see KU, I. 2. 12.

For alāta see MV, p. 219: pūrvāparakoṭyanupalambhād [alāta]cakravat (mgal. meḥi. hkhor. lo. bshin. no); p. 221: ādimadhyāvasānavirahitatvād alātacakravat.

